

Copyright
by
Niranjan Srinivasan Janardhanan
2018

**The Dissertation Committee for Niranjana Srinivasan Janardhanan Certifies that
this is the approved version of the following Dissertation:**

Manager Identity Prominence and Managerial Performance

Committee:

Caroline Bartel, Co-Supervisor

Luis Martins, Co-Supervisor

Shafali Patil

Batia Wiesenfeld

Manager Identity Prominence and Managerial Performance

by

Niranjan Srinivasan Janardhanan

Dissertation

Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of

The University of Texas at Austin

in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements

for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

The University of Texas at Austin

May 2018

Dedication

To God, the manager of my identity.

To Mum and Dad, my pillars of support.

To Swaroopa, my beacon of light.

Acknowledgements

I am sincerely grateful for this opportunity to make a contribution to research on manager identity, and more broadly to the field of management, and my efforts would not have been possible or fruitful without the grace of God and the support of several people.

I thank my chairs, Caroline Bartel and Luis Martins, for their time and input on my ideas, for reading several early drafts, and for encouraging me to work towards a more impactful dissertation. This dissertation would not have been possible without Caroline's guidance in integrating insights from different theoretical disciplines and her emphasis on clarity of contribution and fit between theory and method. I am deeply grateful to Luis for identifying my strengths as a researcher early on, and for guiding me to strive for theoretical rigor as well as practical managerial and organizational relevance. I thank my committee members, Shefali Patil and Batia Wiesenfeld, for their timely and valuable insights and feedback. I greatly benefited from Shef's exposure to latest research on a broad variety of management topics and her advice on effectively managing the dissertation process. Batia's vast experience helped me better define the scope of my dissertation and address a broader organizational audience.

My writing, framing, and analyses have benefited at various stages from the advice and guidance of Kyle Lewis, Dave Harrison, Ethan Burris, Andy Henderson, George Huber, Janet Dukerich, Ruchi Sinha, Lindred Greer, Jeff Edwards, and Rhonda Reger. I have been able to expand the relevance of my dissertation to the various management disciplines thanks to the faculty members and students at McCombs, and my colleagues in the broader international organizational research community.

I am grateful to Seunghwan Jeong, Taeya Howell, Christina Kyprianou, Shi-Ying Lim, Suho Han, Yurianna Kimmons, Nandini Ramani, Santosh Srinivas, Esther Sackett, and Anna Mayo, for their relentless support and valuable feedback on my work. For their enthusiastic response to my early ideas and for their constructive criticism, I thank Steve Gray, Amit Nandkeolyar, Yih-Teen Lee, Randall Peterson, Gianpiero Petriglieri, Sherry Thatcher, Sara Lombardi, Sofya Isaakyan, Franziska Schölmerich, Ben Dow, Natalie Longmire, Andrea Caldwell, Wei Yang, Jake Jo, Leah Fredman, and Sanaz Talaifar. For their encouragement and belief in my abilities as a researcher, I am grateful to Dishan Kamdar, Henry Moon, Subra Tangirala, Srinivas, and Alexander Mathew.

I am thankful to the University of Texas at Austin, McCombs School of Business, the Herb Kelleher Center for Entrepreneurship, and the McCombs Center for Leadership and Ethics for supporting my data collection efforts and for providing me an inclusive and encouraging environment to pursue my research. I thank Raquel de la Bastide, John Moore, Elizabeth Egbert, Reanna Cruz, Alexis Chavez, Jay Kleine, and Sheri Gonzalez for their data-collection and administrative support. I thank the management and baristas at Caffè Medici for hosting me for several hours and for the several cups of free cortados that fueled my writing.

Words cannot express my gratitude for my wife, Swaroopa, for motivating me at every stage and for being the first critic of my ideas, and for my parents, for imbuing in me a zest for distinction in everything I do, and for being a source of positive energy throughout the dissertation process. I thank my grandparents and Kumar chitappa, my ideals in work ethic, and Uncle and Aunt, my sources of academic inspiration, for their constant support and reassurance that persistence and diligence will always bear fruit. I am grateful to my family in Chennai, Houston, and San Francisco for their wishes and for never doubting my strengths and capabilities.

Abstract

Manager Identity Prominence and Managerial Performance

Niranjan Srinivasan Janardhanan, Ph.D.

The University of Texas at Austin, 2018

Co-Supervisors: Caroline Bartel & Luis Martins

Although prior research has provided rich descriptions of what managers do, it is inconclusive on why some managers are more likely than others to engage in behaviors required for managerial effectiveness, such as making decisions for their teams and engaging with external stakeholders on behalf of their teams. Drawing from identity theory and social identity theory, I propose that manager identity prominence—i.e., the importance attached to the manager identity relative to their other affiliations (e.g. team, department, and profession)—motivates managers to engage more in these managerial behaviors. Since managers have to balance several identities at work, such as that of an organizational member, or an individual contributor on some projects, there is variation in manager identity prominence among managers. Furthermore, given the complex nature of the managerial role, managers often have a choice in the manner in which they engage in managerial behaviors. In this dissertation, I argue that the manager identity prominence relates to managers' inclusive or restrictive engagement in managerial behaviors depending on their general orientations towards working to for the benefit of others (prosocial motivation), their beliefs about their legitimacy to dominate over others (social dominance orientation), and the breadth of strategic choices available to them at work

(managerial discretion). To demonstrate these relationships, I introduce the construct of manager identity prominence and develop and validate an item-based measure for the construct. Using two studies—a quasi-field study on a panel of managers employed in the United States, and a field study at a large organization in Southern United States—I examine how individual and contextual factors modify the relationships between manager identity prominence and managerial behaviors. Results from two studies support the hypothesis that manager identity prominence relates positively to restriction of subordinates' input on team processes when managers are high on social dominance orientation. Results from the multi-source field study also indicates that in contexts of higher managerial discretion, manager identity prominence relates negatively to decision delegation and positively to restriction of input from subordinates.

Table of Contents

| | |
|--|------|
| List of Tables | xii |
| List of Figures | xiii |
| Chapter 1: Introduction | 1 |
| Chapter 2: Literature Review | 6 |
| Manager Effectiveness | 6 |
| Managerial behaviors and managerial performance | 8 |
| Summary | 11 |
| Antecedents of Managerial Effectiveness | 12 |
| Competency-based antecedents of manager effectiveness | 12 |
| Dispositional antecedents of manager effectiveness | 14 |
| Summary | 19 |
| Manager Identity | 19 |
| Manager identity as a role identity | 20 |
| Defining manager identity | 22 |
| Managing the Manager Identity | 24 |
| Manager identity formation – Making sense of the managerial role | 25 |
| Being a manager – Identity work in the managerial role | 28 |
| Summary | 30 |
| Multiple Identities and Identity Prominence | 31 |
| Identity prominence | 33 |
| Defining Manager Identity Prominence | 41 |
| Distinction from related constructs | 46 |

| | |
|---|----|
| Summary | 49 |
| Chapter 3: Hypotheses Development..... | 51 |
| Manager Identity Prominence and Decisional Behaviors..... | 51 |
| Interaction with prosocial motivation | 55 |
| Interaction with social dominance orientation..... | 57 |
| Manager Identity Prominence and Boundary-Spanning Behaviors | 58 |
| Interaction with prosocial motivation | 62 |
| Interaction with social dominance orientation..... | 63 |
| Influence of Context: Managerial discretion | 64 |
| Chapter 4: Studies on Manager Identity Prominence | 69 |
| Measure Development Study | 69 |
| Step 1: Expert Evaluation Study | 71 |
| Step 2: Study to establish Construct Validity | 73 |
| Step 3: Confirmatory Factor Analysis | 76 |
| Study 1: Manager Panel Study | 77 |
| Method | 78 |
| Results..... | 80 |
| Discussion..... | 84 |
| Study 2: Field Study | 86 |
| Method..... | 87 |
| Results..... | 89 |
| Discussion..... | 93 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| Chapter 5: General Discussion..... | 96 |
| Contributions | 101 |
| Contributions to theory | 101 |
| Practical Implications | 104 |
| Limitations and Future Research | 105 |
| Boundary conditions | 105 |
| Limitations | 107 |
| Future Research | 109 |
| Conclusion | 112 |
| Tables and Figures | 113 |
| Appendices..... | 135 |
| Appendix 1: Comparison of Manager Identity Prominence with Related Constructs | 135 |
| Appendix 2: Proposed List of Items for Manager Identity Prominence..... | 136 |
| Appendix 3: Final Measure of Manager Identity Prominence | 139 |
| Appendix 4: Full list of measures | 140 |
| References..... | 146 |

List of Tables

| | |
|---|-----|
| Table 1: Measure Development—Step 1: Expert Evaluation Study | 113 |
| Table 2a: Measure Development—Step 2: Bivariate Correlations..... | 114 |
| Table 2b: Measure Development—Step 2: Exploratory Factor Pattern Matrix | 115 |
| Table 3: Measure Development—Step 3: Confirmatory Factor Analysis | 116 |
| Table 4: Study 1—Manager Panel Study: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations | 117 |
| Table 5: Study 1—Manager Panel: Regression Analyses: Decisional Behaviors | 118 |
| Table 6: Study 1—Manager Panel: Regression Analyses: Boundary Spanning Behaviors | 119 |
| Table 7: Study 2—Field Study: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations | 120 |
| Table 8: Regression – Decisional Behaviors | 121 |
| Table 9: Regression – Boundary-Spanning Behaviors | 122 |
| Table 10: Summary of Results..... | 123 |

List of Figures

| | |
|--|-----|
| Figure 1: Model..... | 124 |
| Figure 2: Study 1—Manager Panel: Interaction Plot: Interaction of Manager Identity Prominence and Prosocial Motivation on Delegation | 125 |
| Figure 3: Study 1—Manager Panel: Interaction Plot: Interaction of Manager Identity Prominence and Social Dominance Orientation on Micromanagement | 126 |
| Figure 4: Study 1—Manager Panel: Interaction Plot: Interaction of Manager Identity Prominence and Prosocial Motivation on Competition | 127 |
| Figure 5: Study 1—Manager Panel: Interaction Plot: Interaction of Manager Identity Prominence and Social Dominance Orientation on Competition | 128 |
| Figure 6: Study 2—Field Study: Interaction Plot: Interaction of Manager Identity Prominence and Prosocial Motivation on Micromanagement | 129 |
| Figure 7: Study 2—Field Study: Interaction Plot: Interaction of Manager Identity Prominence and Social Dominance Orientation on Delegation | 130 |
| Figure 8: Study 2—Field Study: Interaction Plot: Interaction of Manager Identity Prominence and Social Dominance Orientation on Micromanagement | 131 |
| Figure 9: Study 2—Field Study: Interaction Plot: Interaction of Manager Identity Prominence and Prosocial Motivation on Representation | 132 |
| Figure 10: Study 2—Field Study: Interaction Plot: Interaction of Manager Identity Prominence and Managerial Discretion on Delegation | 133 |
| Figure 11: Study 2—Field Study: Interaction Plot: Interaction of Manager Identity Prominence and Managerial Discretion on Micromanagement..... | 134 |

Chapter 1: Introduction

Managers are formally in charge of a team or a subunit of an organization, and supervise a group of individuals working on common tasks (Hill, 1992). To be effective in modern organizations, managers are expected to engage in decisional and boundary-spanning behaviors--i.e., managing decisions that affect the functioning of their teams, and representing their team across team boundaries to ensure access to resources and alignment with broader organizational goals (Mintzberg, 1973; Dierdorff et al., 2009). Managers are not only leaders of their teams, but also subordinates to their superiors, and peers to stakeholders within and outside the organization. They are expected by different stakeholders to be representative members of their team or department, and loyal to their profession and the organization at large. In contemporary organizations, some managers are also expected to work on projects where they are individual contributors. As prior research has focused on the managerial role in isolation, it does not provide sufficient insights into why some managers are more likely than others to engage in behaviors considered essential for managerial success. Thus, it becomes essential to examine the importance individuals attach to being a manager, relative to their other roles (e.g., individual contributor/project coordinator) and affiliations at work.

I argue that *manager identity prominence*—defined as the importance individuals attach to being in charge of a team or a group of individuals, i.e. being a manager, relative to other roles or group memberships at work—is a key sense-making and motivating factor that makes individuals occupying managerial roles to engage more in managerial behaviors. However, given the complexity of the managerial role, managers can choose the manner in which they engage in decisional or boundary spanning

behaviors. They could be inclusive, where they act as a facilitative liaison and encourage a participative climate within their teams. On the other hand, they could be aggressive and domineering while dealing with others. Given their unique position at the boundary of their teams, managers could act inclusively or restrictively with different stakeholders. Therefore, understanding manager identity prominence in tandem with individual beliefs as well as contextual constraints is essential to explain variations in the degree and manner of engagement in managerial behaviors within and outside their teams.

Studying manager identity prominence is both timely and important for two reasons. First, whereas prior research on managerial work describes behaviors that managers engage in (Mintzberg, 1973; Hill, 1992), it is inconclusive on why some managers are more likely than others to engage in these behaviors. I draw from identity theory, social identity theory, and research on multiple identities to explain why this is so. In the workplace, individuals construct their sense of self from their associations with several roles and memberships to various groups. For example, the organization is a likely and common focus of identification for employees (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Likewise, employees with a strong professional identity (e.g. nurses, doctors, lawyers) are likely to behave consistently with the expectations of their profession. With diminishing emphasis on formal hierarchies in modern organizations and the proliferation of project-based and matrixed organizational structures, managers are increasingly having to balance their managerial responsibilities with working as individual contributors on projects and teams other than the ones they supervise. Given these varied role requirements, there is significant variation across managerial role occupants in whether they view “being a manager” as just one of the many things they do at work, or as an important aspect of who they are. I argue that the relative prominence of the manager

identity to other identities is likely to motivate individuals occupying manager roles to engage more in managerial behaviors.

Second, the multi-faceted nature of managerial behaviors makes it likely that individual role-occupants personalize their manager identities and exercise some discretion in the manner in which they engage in these behaviors. For example, at one extreme, managers could be inclusive and cooperative facilitators between their organization and their subordinates, empowering their subordinates to make decisions and representing their teams to other stakeholders in the organization. At the other extreme, they could be restrictive and self-serving, restricting input from their subordinates on team functioning and hoarding resources at the expense of other teams or the organization as a whole. Thus, along with manager identity prominence, it becomes important to understand factors which make managers engage in inclusive or restrictive behaviors.

The managerial role is inherently social and interactive, in that managers are mandated to get their work accomplished through others, but at the same time expected to guide their subordinates towards achieving short- and long-term goals. Thus, individuals' attitudes towards others at work—i.e. whether they view others as beneficiaries or merely as the means towards achieving one's own goals—and towards hierarchies—i.e. whether or not individuals view their hierarchical position as providing them legitimacy to dominate over others—are likely to influence whether managers are more inclusive and cooperative or restrictive and competitive in engaging in decision making and boundary spanning. Therefore, I examine prosocial motivation (Grant, 2007) and social dominance orientation (Sidanius, Pratto, Sinclair, & van Laar, 1996) as moderators to the relationships between manager identity prominence and managerial behaviors.

Additionally, since the organizational context imposes constraints on managers to make strategic choices, I also examined managerial discretion—defined as the managers’ ability to influence strategic outcomes in the organization (Carpenter & Golden, 1997)—as a contextual factor, to understand how manager identity prominence makes managers adapt their behaviors to different contexts.

Through this dissertation, I make three key contributions. First, I bring an identity perspective to research on managerial behaviors and performance. I demonstrate how manager identity prominence and other individual and contextual factors jointly influence managerial behaviors such as managing team decisions and boundary spanning. I contribute to identity research in organizations by examining the relative importance of a critical role-based identity in organizations, i.e. that of the manager. Given the focus of prior literature on category-based identities and on qualitative research on identity construction and management, my findings provide insights into the effects of a prominent manager identity and opens avenues for future research on multiple identities in organizations. Second, I contribute to a more nuanced understanding of the relationship between identity prominence and role enactment by integrating from other streams of literature such as prosocial motivation, social dominance, and managerial discretion. I examine how the nature of the relationship between a prominent identity and behaviors varies for individuals depending on the meanings they attach to social and structural aspects of the identity. Given the complexity of the managerial role and the discretion available to managers in behaving inclusively or restrictively, the paper would provide the basis for future research into other dispositional, relational, and contextual factors that could affect these relationships. Third, my findings have significant implications for practicing managers and organizations. I show that having a prominent manager identity could have important consequences for how managers behave in

organizations, and therefore how they influence not only their subordinates, but also their overall working environment including their own teams and the broader organizational network. I also identify contextual and individual attitudinal factors that could make a prominent managerial identity detrimental to the team or the organization. My results would help in the selection and training of appropriate managers based on their individual characteristics and focus of the department and the organization.

In the next chapter, I review prior research on managerial effectiveness, manager identity, and multiple identities in organizations, and demonstrate the importance of considering the manager identity in conjunction with other work-related affiliations of managers. In Chapter 3, I integrate ideas from identity theory and social identity theory, and research on multiple identities, with research on prosocial motivation, social dominance orientation, and managerial discretion to present my hypotheses about the interactive relationships of these factors and manager identity prominence on managerial behaviors. In Chapter 4, I detail the three studies conducted to develop a measure for manager identity prominence and to test my hypotheses. These include a measure development study, a quasi-field study conducted on a panel of managers working across different organizations in the United States, and a multi-source field study conducted on managers, and their superiors and subordinates, working in a large educational organization in Southern United States. In the final chapter, I discuss the findings and contributions to research and practice, examine limitations with the current studies, and propose avenues for future research on manager identity prominence.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

MANAGER EFFECTIVENESS

In this chapter, I review prior literature on managerial performance and integrate from various streams of literature on identity to define and explicate the relationships between manager identity prominence and managerial behaviors. Managerial effectiveness has been defined as the extent to which an individual occupying the role of a manager is able to fulfill the requirements or performance objectives of that role (Levenson, van der Stede, & Cohen, 2006; Tsui, 1984). In this section, I review prior research on managerial effectiveness, which has revolved around the central question: “What makes managers effective?”

Mintzberg (1973) was among the earliest to comprehensively review “what managers actually do” to be seen as effective. Through a series of studies, Mintzberg came up with a set of sub-roles that managers are likely to play, suggesting that these sub-roles form the content of a typical managerial role. He classified managerial roles into interpersonal (liaisoning with and leading people), informational (monitoring and disseminating knowledge), and decisional (entrepreneurial, problem-solving, resource allocation, and negotiating). Mintzberg categorized first-level supervisors, chief executive of organizations, and leaders of gangs as managers. This characterization has its advantages and disadvantages. While the conceptualization is parsimonious and provides a summary of the general characteristics of all types of managers, there may be fundamental differences in the content of these various roles.

Mahoney, Jerdee, and Carroll (1965) provided a behavioral conceptualization of manager effectiveness comprising eight behaviors of planning, investigating,

coordinating, evaluating, supervising, staffing, negotiating, and representing. This characterization of managerial work as a set of behaviors is similar to classical research on chief executives which characterized their work as comprising seven behaviors—i.e., planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting. Mahoney et al.'s conceptualization has been used by several subsequent researchers examining managerial effectiveness (Burkert, Fischer, & Schaffer, 2011; Heneman, 1974). They demonstrated that clarity of what is expected as role occupants (clear performance management systems, clear role perceptions, etc.) was a key driver of managerial effectiveness.

Hogan and Holland (2003) proposed that managerial performance comprised two categories, namely, task performance and contextual performance. Task performance included strategic management or getting-ahead workplace behaviors, such as planning, guiding, administering, maintaining, coordinating, and managing change. Contextual performance included interpersonal management or getting-along workplace behaviors, such as maintaining relationships, volunteering, and helping. This stream of research focused on trait antecedents such as the big-five personality traits (Craig et al., 2002; Minbashian, Bright, & Bird, 2009; Oh & Berry, 2009), and cognitions such as well-being and satisfaction (Hosie, Willemyns, & Sevastos, 2012) to predict these behaviors.

In their comprehensive review of past taxonomies of managerial behaviors, Dierdorff, Rubin, and Morgeson (2009) put forth three categories of conceptual, interpersonal, and technical/administrative behaviors. Conceptual behaviors comprise managing decision-making, strategy, and innovation. Interpersonal behaviors include managing human capital and the task environment. Technical/administrative behaviors include managing administration, control, logistics, and technology. They further provide

evidence that certain specific types of knowledge (about business, people, and technology), skills (interpersonal, operational, strategic, and cognitive), traits, and motivational orientations influence these managerial behaviors. (See Dierdorff et al., 2009, for a detailed review of the various taxonomies of managerial behaviors).

Since early conceptualizations of managers, an important aspect of the managerial role pertains to their unique position on the periphery of their teams, where they have to engage in representation behaviors outside their team. Ancona and Caldwell (1992a) showed that managers acted as boundary spanners between their team and the broader organizational network, thus facilitating not only transfer of information across these boundaries, but also ensuring implementation of strategy, exchange of resources, and enabling coordination between their teams and external stakeholders (Ancona & Caldwell, 1992a; Druskat & Wheeler, 2003; Benoliel & Somech, 2015). Expectedly, these behaviors may be more important for certain managers than others. For example, Murphy and Li (2012) showed that sales managers who engaged more in building close relationships with salespersons as well as with customers were more successful. Shi, Markoczy, and Dess (2009) outlined the various brokerage roles that managers assume as liaisons between their subordinates, peers, and supervisors to be able to synthesize information, implement strategy, facilitate adaptability, and champion alternatives in their organizations.

Managerial behaviors and managerial performance

Managerial behaviors are complex not only because of their varied and often contradictory nature, but also because the criteria for behaviors being considered signs of effective managerial performance are not straightforward. Early research on behaviors

required for managerial effectiveness by Tsui (1984) and Blau (1986) demonstrated the complex nature of the managerial role, in that it involved engaging with multiple stakeholders, and that different behaviors may be viewed as desirable by different stakeholders. Tsui (1984) demonstrated that engaging in entrepreneurial (e.g. planning and implementing change) and environment monitoring (e.g. scanning environment for opportunities, discuss ideas with external stakeholders) behaviors was viewed favorably by all stakeholders (peers, subordinates, and supervisors) as well as by managers themselves. Other behaviors related to effectiveness as perceived by certain stakeholders but not others. For example, managers felt that liaison behaviors (developing and maintaining external contacts) were important for effectiveness, but other stakeholders did not. Managers who were good spokespersons (engaging in information-sharing and communication) were rated as more effective by peers and subordinates, but not by supervisors. However, subsequent research suggested that these findings were contingent on other factors. For example, Blau (1986) showed that subordinate-focused behaviors (monitoring, appraisals, training, counseling, etc.) led to higher managerial effectiveness ratings from supervisors, but only for middle and higher level managers, and not for lower level managers. This suggests that behaviors affect managerial effectiveness contingent on several factors such as hierarchical level and stakeholder category.

Apart from differences in behavioral requirements for effectiveness across constituencies, subsequent research has also examined the relative importance of behaviors in predicting overall managerial effectiveness. Conway (1999, 2000) examined various behavioral antecedents of managerial effectiveness in tandem and demonstrated that leadership behaviors (engaging with subordinates, setting direction, etc.) did not significantly predict managerial performance when controlling for job dedication (initiative, commitment, motivation), interpersonal facilitation (maintaining relationships,

cooperation, consideration) and technical/administrative behaviors (possessing technical knowledge, initiating structure, problem-solving, etc.). Conway's findings suggest that leadership behaviors do not significantly add to managerial effectiveness as long as they were committed to their job and also engaged in other managerial behaviors.

Borman and Brush (1993) provided an empirical examination of taxonomies of managerial behaviors and examined the amount of variance in managerial effectiveness explained by each of these categories. They found that close to two-thirds (61%) of all variance in effectiveness was explained by five behavioral categories: (a) planning and organizing; (b) guiding and motivating subordinates; (c) training and developing subordinates; (d) communicating; and (e) representing the unit to external stakeholders (see Borman & Brush, 1993 for a complete list of behaviors that managers typically engage in).

Among the behaviors that Borman and Brush examined, there are certain behaviors which are an inherent part of the managerial job description, such as administration, hiring, recruiting, and training. These role-required expectations are those that managers can be directly held accountable for. Managers are typically mandated to engage in these actions, because not doing so would likely be direct grounds for dismissal for not performing the job. In contrast, behaviors such as communication, delegation, boundary-spanning, leading change, etc. are those which managers may tacitly be expected to engage in, but are behaviors that may be difficult to monitor. Managers are likely to vary in the extent to which they engage in these behaviors. Contextual factors pertaining to the organization and the environment in which the organization operates are likely to influence which behaviors relate more or less to managerial effectiveness. Dierdorff et al. (2009) showed that contextual factors such as accountability, autonomy,

routinization, interdependence, environmental conditions, etc. determined behavioral expectations from managers. For example, in more interdependent contexts, managers were expected to engage more in managing the task environment and administration, and less in managing logistics and technology.

Choice of managerial behaviors. Based on these considerations, I examine for the purpose of this dissertation managerial behaviors that explain significant variation in managerial performance across most contexts, as evaluated by two important stakeholder groups (subordinates and superiors). I focus on decisional and boundary-spanning behaviors—i.e., managing processes and decisions concerning how work is accomplished in the team and managing team resources in the external environment—for two reasons. First, these behaviors are the most closely tied with the managerial position, and are representative of the managerial role across contexts. Unlike technical aspects of the role which could vary in intensity and content widely from one context to another, decisional and boundary spanning behaviors are consistently expected of managers in most contexts (Dierdorff et al., 2009). Second, unlike behaviors pertaining to managing technology, administration, and logistics, which are the mandated and often mundane aspects of the managerial role (Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003), managers have some discretion in terms of how much and in what manner they engage in decisional and boundary spanning behaviors (Borman & Brush, 1993).

Summary

Research on managerial behaviors provides either a descriptive or a prescriptive account of the managerial role—i.e. what behaviors managers do or should engage in. It is evident from this stream of research that beyond a general definition of the managerial

role, behaviors vary widely across role occupants. With such breadth of behaviors constituting the managerial role, managerial effectiveness is likely to depend on several factors. For example, the importance attached to being a manager could differ across individuals, and therefore influence their motivation to engage in managerial behaviors. Alongside occupying the managerial role, managers also have multiple associations with social groups in the workplace (e.g. organization, department, team, profession, etc.). Additionally, managers are also likely to draw different meanings about the role depending on various individual and contextual factors. Thus, it becomes important to examine the importance of the manager identity relative to other identities at work, in conjunction with individual and contextual factors that are likely to affect the nature of managerial behaviors. As the basis for these relationships, I review prior research on antecedents to managerial effectiveness and research on manager identity.

ANTECEDENTS OF MANAGERIAL EFFECTIVENESS

Competency-based antecedents of manager effectiveness

Most individuals in organizations get promoted as managers for their competencies in their jobs. In line with such practices, research has examined competencies as likely predictors of effectiveness in managerial roles. Possessing more and broader knowledge is likely to be advantageous for individuals' performance in the workplace in general. Unsurprisingly, this is true in the case of managers as well. Individuals who possess more knowledge about the technical and organizational aspects of their job are more likely to be successful as managers (Borman et al., 1993; Deeter-Schmelz, Kennedy, & Goebel, 2002; Karmel & Egan, 1976; Viswesvaran, Ones, & Hough, 2001). Dragoni, Tesluk, Russell, and Oh (2009) proposed that having a broader

knowledge base of products and services is an essential part of being a competent manager, compared to being an effective individual contributor. This is in line with early research on the necessity for managers to have broader perspectives (Hobert & Dunnette, 1967), and has been supported by more recent evidence from Chong (2013), who showed that it is important for managers to have a strategic perspective to be effective.

Early research on manager effectiveness has shown that intelligence is a key factor required to be effective at least for first-level managers (Korman, 1968). This evidence has been verified by more recent studies which demonstrated a positive correlation between measures of general cognitive ability such as the GMAT score and managerial potential (Borman, Hanson, Oppler, Pulakos, & White, 1993; Craik et al., 2002). Education and past experience are likely predictors of knowledge in multiple aspects of the job. Accordingly, prior research has found positive effects of these factors on manager effectiveness (Borman et al., 1993; Neelankavil, Mathur, & Zhang, 2000). However, Levenson et al. (2006) demonstrated that education was not a significant predictor, and that the positive effects of past experience on manager effectiveness had diminishing effects beyond a point in the managers' careers. Levenson et al. (2006) also showed that other characteristics such as traits and interpersonal competencies were more important predictors of manager effectiveness.

Taken together, and based on comprehensive reviews of studies on managers (Hoffman, Woehr, Maldagen-Youngjohn & Lyons, 2011; Korman, 1968), it is evident that although education, experience, intellectual capability, and knowledge are reasonable predictors of managerial effectiveness, such assertions are not without reservation. First, there are diminishing returns to intelligence and competencies. Although intelligence may provide managers with the initial fillip to perform well in their roles, becoming

seasoned managers and continuing to perform well may warrant different abilities and motivations. Second, the positive effect of knowledge on managerial effectiveness could be due to knowledgeable individuals being generally more effective rather than specifically as a manager. Thus, the stream of research on competencies provide a constrained view of managerial effectiveness and falls short of explaining why individuals who may be equally capable across multiple responsibilities in the workplace prioritize and execute managerial behaviors better than others.

Dispositional antecedents of manager effectiveness

Traits. Personality traits are stable and enduring psychological characteristics that provide reasons for individuals' tendencies to feel, think, and act across situations (Allport, 1937; Barrick, Mount, & Gupta, 2003; Mount, Barrick, Scullen, & Rounds, 2005). The big-five personality traits, which include agreeableness, conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism or emotional stability, and openness to experience have been studied as factors that provide "a comprehensive portrait of an individual's personality" (Costa & McCrae, 1992, p. 5). Extraversion, defined as the tendency to be sociable and active, and experience positive emotions (Costa & McCrae, 1992), is likely to predict overall engagement in behaviors such as assertiveness and communication (Lounsbury, Sundstrom, Gibson, Loveland, & Drost, 2014). Agreeableness refers to the tendency to be cooperative and develop a rapport with others, while neuroticism (or the opposite of emotional stability) refers to a tendency to experience psychological distress (Costa & McCrae, 1992). While evidence for the positive effects of extraversion is unequivocal (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Craik et al., 2002; Karmel & Egan, 1976; Hoffman et al., 2011), other personality factors either have a weaker influence or mixed effects on managerial effectiveness.

Several studies have demonstrated positive effects of agreeableness (Hobert & Dunnette, 1967; Thomason, Weeks, Bernardine, & Kane, 2011), and emotional stability (Hobert & Dunnette, 1967; Marcus, Goffin, Johnston, & Rothstein, 2007) on managerial performance. However, meta-analyses by Barrick and Mount (1991) found that these factors were not significant predictors of managerial job proficiency. Similarly, whereas Craik et al. (2002) found positive effects of openness—the tendency to be intellectually curious and imaginative—on managerial potential, Thomason et al. (2011) showed that openness was not related to supervisor-rated effectiveness and was negatively related to subordinate-rated effectiveness. Thomason et al. (2011) also showed that conscientious individuals—or those with a tendency to be scrupulous, organized, and diligent (Costa & McCrae, 1992)—are viewed as better managers by their supervisors, but not necessarily by their subordinates. Meta-analyses on conscientiousness found a significant positive relationship with job proficiency (Barrick & Mount, 1991). However, Robertson, Baron, Gibbons, MacIver, and Nyfield (2000) did not find significant effects of conscientiousness on managerial effectiveness. Their results showed that conscientiousness was negatively related to decisiveness and not significantly related with strategic and commercial acumen. The negative effects of conscientiousness appear to support Mintzberg's (1973) view of superficiality as an occupational hazard for managers, and suggests that operating at a more generalist, higher level of task detail compared to individual contributors could be beneficial to managers in certain conditions.

The ubiquitous nature of hierarchical power that comes with occupying a managerial role necessitates examining traits such as assertiveness among managers. Lounsbury and colleagues (2014) showed that managers tend to be more assertive compared to non-managers on average. Early research by Hobert and Dunnette (1967) on identification of management potential showed that successful managers tended to be

more aggressive and dominating over others. However, subsequent research by Marcus et al. (2007) showed weak positive or non-significant effects of boldness on managerial effectiveness. This change in the effect of assertiveness, boldness, and aggression could stem from the fact that these studies were conducted forty years apart, and that societal and organizational norms of effective management have changed over the years. All the same, whereas assertiveness, like other personality traits, is likely to predict the general tendency to exert power, it may not predict managers' overall behavior set required for effectiveness.

As traits tend to be broad and basic, they are more likely to predict general tendencies of individuals to engage in certain behaviors, which may elicit different reactions from different constituencies that managers engage with, such as supervisors, peers, and subordinates. As manager roles are complex and involve multiple, often contradictory behaviors, it becomes important to examine more specific predictors of managerial effectiveness such as motivations and cognitions associated with occupying the managerial role. I review prior research conducted on motives and values of managers and how they have been shown to affect performance.

Motives. One of the key constructs that has been used in the past to predict advancement to managerial and leadership positions is motivation to manage, defined as the desire to satisfy requirements of the traditional managerial role in a hierarchical organizational context (Miner, 1978). According to managerial role motivation theory, motivation to manage is associated with assertiveness, competitiveness, distinctiveness, and favorability towards supervisors (Miner, 1965; 1978), thereby making it similar to dispositional dominance. Managers with high motivation to manage drew satisfaction from administrative activities (Miner, 1978) and had a more ethical orientation towards

their role (Ebrahimi, Petrick, & Young, 2005). A major weakness with using the role motivation theory to predict managerial effectiveness is that, similar to dispositional traits, motivation to manage was predictive of general professional success (e.g. for teachers), rather than managerial success in particular (Miner, 1978). As a result, the managerial role motivation theory has largely fallen out of favor since the late 1970s (see Ebrahimi et al., 2005 for an exception).

Motivation to manage is similar to generic power and achievement needs and motives, which were proposed as being characteristic of successful managers (Cummin, 1967; McClelland, 1975; Miner, 1978). However, Tsui and Ohlott (1988) found mixed support for need for power and achievement predicting specific managerial behaviors. They found that whereas need for power negatively predicted subordinates' ratings of their managers, need for achievement did not have a significant impact. More recently, Marcus et al. (2007) and Hoffman et al. (2011) found that need for achievement positively predicts managerial effectiveness. Considering the primary mechanism behind the effects of motives and motivation on managerial effectiveness was purported to be a desire to be distinctive and successful compared to others (Tsui & Ohlott, 1988), it is likely that these motives are related to the propensity to succeed in general, and not specifically as managers.

Values. The social nature of the managerial role necessitates interactions with others to get work accomplished. Scholars have examined cultural and personal values and their impact on managers' interactions primarily with their subordinates. Values are beliefs about desirable end states or behaviors that transcend specific situations (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987). Unlike motives which reflect individual drive to engage in certain behaviors, values and beliefs tend to reflect individuals' perceptions about society and

social structures in general. Individuals use values as their benchmarks to select, interpret, justify, and evaluate their own actions as well as that of others (Schwartz, 1992; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987; Shamir, 1990). Sadri, Weber, and Gentry (2011) showed that holding cultural values of power-distance would enable managers, especially those who are likely to show higher levels of empathic concern, to be more effective. They argued that power-distance combined with empathic concern led to paternalism, which made managers focus on the interests of their subordinates, and therefore obtain better effectiveness ratings.

In their research on various types of personal values held by individuals, Sosik and colleagues (Sosik, 2005; Sosik, Jung, & Dinger, 2009) demonstrated that self-transcendental values—focusing “one’s attention away from the self and toward helping others, recognizing one’s connectedness to natural or spiritual systems” (Sosik, 2005, p. 227)—had an indirect effect on managerial effectiveness through prosocial exchange behaviors by managers and their subordinates. Self-transcendental values are associated with altruistic tendencies and self-sacrifice by managers (Kanungo & Mendonca, 1996), which in turn lead to improved loyalty, trust, social exchange, and evaluations from their constituencies (Sosik, 2005). Sosik et al. (2009) found evidence that self-transcendental values promote relational or collective self-construal among managers, which in turn make them focus more on their subordinates. However, they found mixed support for the effects of self-enhancement values—defined as a focus on personal pleasure, material resources, and influence over others (Schwartz, 1992)—on managerial effectiveness. While self-enhancement values led to more advancement for managers, it also led to negative evaluations from subordinates. This suggests that as self-enhancement values may be associated with a desire for power and advancement, they may result in career growth for managers; but at a cost.

Summary

Overall, prior research on managerial effectiveness has examined individual differences, motivations, and values that are generally likely to be associated with higher managerial effectiveness. Although these streams of research provide some indications about who may be a better manager on average, the relationship from these factors to managerial effectiveness is distal. As dispositions predict stable tendencies of individuals, it is difficult to ascertain if they are specifically related to managerial effectiveness, or are merely predictors of overall behavior and effectiveness in any organizational role. Thus, it becomes essential to examine the meanings individual attach to occupying the managerial role, and the importance they attribute to being a manager. I draw from identity theory, social identity theory, and research on multiple identities to understand the manager identity in the context of other identities that managers may have at work.

MANAGER IDENTITY

Identity is defined as “a set of meanings that define who one is when one is an occupant of a particular role in society, a member of a particular group, or claims particular characteristics that [make] him or her a unique individual” (Burke & Stets, 2009, p. 3). As identity has been used in several different ways in conjunction with the term “self”, sometimes interchangeably (Ramarajan, 2014), it is important to clarify the usage of the two terms for the purpose of this paper. Considering the definition of the self is broader and more abstract (Burke & Tully, 1977; James, 1923), and that of identity is more specific and comprising of meanings derived from a particular role in society (Burke & Stets, 2009), I refer to identities as partial aspects or sub-units of the more abstract overall concept of the self (Burke & Tully, 1977; McCall & Simmons, 1978;

Ramarajan, 2014). Individuals can draw subjective meaning, knowledge, and partial experiences of the self from these identities (Ramarajan, 2014). Identity is a sense-making and meaning-providing tool (Ashforth, 2001), a lens through which individuals view, make sense of, and interact with the broader society (Cooley, 1926; Weick, 1995). The relationship between the individual and the society is inextricable, and identities are defined based on the individuals' associations with others (Cooley, 1992; James, 1923). I now focus on a specific type of identity, namely role-based or simply role identity, and put forth a definition for manager identity.

Manager identity as a role identity

As Burke and Stets's (2009) definition of identity suggests, individuals' identities can be defined based on a social role, a social category, or certain characteristics that define them as an individual. The meaning of a role-based identity is succinctly captured by Watson's definition of the "formal-role social-identity" (Watson, 2008, p. 131), which he defined as "who or what a person is in relation to others" (Watson, 2007, p. 136). A role is an external position or a status, with a set of characteristics or expectations attached to it (Burke & Stets, 2009). Roles are based on social structure, have boundaries, and a more or less fixed set of characteristics irrespective of the individual occupying it (Stryker & Burke, 2000). A role-based identity, or simply role identity, is defined as "the goals, values, beliefs, norms, interaction styles, and time horizons that are typically associate with a role" (Ashforth, 2001, p. 6). An individual is said to have a role-based identity when he or she occupies a social role (Burke & Stets, 2009; Thoits, 1995).

A role identity is internally defined (for a given individual) (Stryker & Burke, 2000), and consists of internalized meanings and schema (personalized by that

individual) about external role expectations (Hogg et al., 1995). The difference between a role and a role identity is that the role is akin to a character in a play and the identity is one particular individual's portrayal of that character (Goffman, 1959). Goffman explained that the role or the position is "not a material thing, to be possessed and then displayed; it is a pattern of appropriate conduct, coherent, embellished, and well-articulated. Performed with ease or clumsiness, awareness or not, guile or good faith, it is none the less something that must be enacted and portrayed..." (p. 75). Thus, an identity is likely to comprise characteristics of the socially defined expectations of the role, as well as individual's personalization of it based on individual characteristics.

Prior research has shown that individuals develop role identities based on the roles they occupy in organizations or in society. For example, an individual working on an academic task or in an organization develops a student identity or a worker identity respectively (Stets, 2005). Developing a particular identity involves cultivating cognitive schema about the nature of that identity and its enactment (Pratt & Foreman, 2000; Sonenshein, 2014). With some of these roles, the identity is defined on the basis of the actions associated with that role, and is evidently associated with those specific actions. For example, a helping role identity or a volunteer identity is likely to be associated with helping and volunteering behaviors (Farmer & van Dyne, 2010; Grant, 2012; Thoits, 2012). Thus, the nature of behaviors associated with such identities are self-evident. However, if the role in question is complex, such as that of the manager, interpretations by individual role occupants could affect their cognitive schema associated with the role, and therefore their engagement in role-related behaviors.

Defining manager identity

An individual's identity as a manager is defined based on the managerial role, rather than a social category of all managers, or any particular individual characteristics as a manager. The managerial role is defined as one where the individual role-occupant is in charge of a team or a work unit or a group of individuals working towards a common goal (Hill, 1992). The general definition of what it means to be a manager, or occupy the managerial role, is the basis for the definition of a manager identity. This is illustrated by a quote from Hill (1992), when she asked individuals to describe what it meant to be a manager:

“A manager is a person in charge. The manager is the person in power, the authority, the expert. Being the manager means running my own office, using my ideas and thoughts... You hold their [the subordinates'] careers, their jobs, in the palm of your hand, so to speak. It is [sic] [the office] my baby. It [is] my job to make sure it works.” (p. 19)

Manager identity is the set of meanings that an individual draws from playing the role of being in charge of a team in an organization to construct their overall sense of self (Watson, 2008). It is the designation within (or the aspect of) an individual's self-concept that is defined based on their occupation and performance of the managerial role. As with other role identities, the manager identity is also likely to consist of not only socially defined expectations or role requirements, but also personalized versions of these requirements by individual role occupants (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). The core characteristics of a manager identity pertain to being in charge of a department or a group of people, having agency over operating the work unit, and holding accountability for the performance and the development of subordinates.

Justification for defining manager identity as a role identity. It is possible that individuals define their manager identity based on being a member of a social category, such as a group or an association of managers. Although this is likely to be very similar to the manager identity defined above, I choose to focus on the manager identity as a role identity for two reasons. First, there are some differences in individuals' motives while identifying with a role versus with a social category (Blader, 2007). Whereas one of the fundamental motivations for individuals to identify with a social category is the need to belong (Baumeister & Leary, 1995), this is a weaker motivation to adopt a role identity. With role identities, individuals are more likely to have other motives associated with adopting an identity, such as distinctiveness, relationships (Brewer & Gardner, 1996), self-enhancement, self-verification (Swann, 1983), self-esteem (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992), control, and sensemaking (Ashforth, 2001).

Second, defining manager identity as role-based allows for a clearer understanding of their interactions with non-role-occupants, such as subordinates and superiors. A category-based identity elicits behaviors concordant with that social category, which will lead the individual member to engage in more parallel actions to other members of the category (Stets & Burke, 2000), to strengthen their in-group affect and their ties with other in-group members (Ashforth, 2001). In contrast, a role identity elicits and guides interactions with members occupying counter-roles, which are complementary to the role in focus. For example, although an individual's manager identity may necessitate ties with other managers of a manager association or the group of managers, the identity is defined and sustained because of their interactions with proximal counter-role occupants such as their subordinates in their work unit (Laing, 1961). As the purpose in this paper is to understand interactions of managers in their capacity of being a role-occupant with counter-roles rather than as a member of a group

of managers, it is essential to define and examine the manager identity as a role identity rather than a category-based identity.

Third, with role identities, the individual actor has more autonomy or agency in defining his or her identity, as opposed to category-based identities. In the case of the latter, an individual will be considered a member of the social category only if he or she conformed to the norms of behavior that characterize other members of the social category (Hogg & Terry, 2000). Non-conformity to the group prototype is likely to lead to a rejection or exclusion of the individual from that social category by other members (Bartel & Wiesenfeld, 2013). However, role identity often involves interactions with members who are not occupants of the same role. Thus, a role identity is semi-prescribed (Stryker, 1987), and the individual role-occupant can modify or improvise the content of the role, as long as it is within the broad framework of what is specified for that particular role (McCall & Simmons, 1966/1978; Owens, Robinson, & Smith-Lovin, 2010). Given the complex nature of the managerial role, a role identity is more representative of the agency that individuals have in defining their identity.

Having proposed a definition of manager identity as a role-based identity, I now turn my attention to review prior research on manager identity, which has examined identity content and the process by which individuals come to construct and manage their manager identities.

MANAGING THE MANAGER IDENTITY

James (1923) suggested that individuals are social selves, and derived their sense of self from their existence and interactions in the broader society. Deriving from James's propositions, Cooley (1992) further purported that individuals' relationships with others

and their introspection thereof formed the bases for the development of individuals' identities. As a result, individuals are likely to form a mental image of themselves in a "looking-glass" based on their reflection on what others think of them. This mental image of the self then results in the execution of behavior in accordance with the identity across different contexts (Cooley, 1992). These ideas formed the bases for the development of the concept of *symbolic interactionism*, which has since been used to further understand human behavior in society (Stryker, 1980). Symbolic interactionism refers to individuals applying symbols or meanings to their interactions with others in society, and constructing their identities on that basis. I discuss symbolic interaction in more detail in subsequent sections.

Based on symbolic interactionism, Webb (2006) suggested that "... organizations do not determine identities... Personal and social identities cannot be read off from organizational prescriptions but are crafted through practice" (p. 34). The manager identity is no exception, in that managerial role occupants come to make sense of their manager identities and interpret them through their interactions with their role alters¹, or their subordinates, supervisors, and peers, and the organizational context (Hill, 1992; Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003).

Manager identity formation – Making sense of the managerial role

Having reviewed prior literature on the behaviors associated with the managerial role, I now examine how managers come to make sense of their role, construct and define their manager identity, and engage in communicating their identity to others.

¹ I refer to anyone the individual interacts with in the capacity of a manager as 'constituencies' or 'role alters'. 'Counter-role occupants' or simply 'counter-roles' are specific constituencies or role alters who occupy roles that are complementary to the role of a manager—i.e. their subordinates.

Manager identity formation begins with transitioning into a managerial role. Ashforth (2001) suggested that individuals undergo several changes when they make these role transitions. Individuals are likely to search for a sense of identity, meaning, control, and belonging when they make transitions into new roles. Ibarra (1999) suggested that individuals try on multiple provisional selves based on emulating existing role occupants, before deciding on a set of behaviors that they are comfortable with, which eventually come to comprise their identity. Several researchers examined these role transitions into managerial roles, and documented the experience of these managers (Hill, 1992; Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003). Hill (1992) showed that managers took a significant amount of time (often several months) to make sense of their roles and define who they were as managers.

One of the aspects of the manager identity is being an administrator—ensuring general administrative order in the team. This “janitorial” role as described by Sveningsson and Alvesson (2003) in their in-depth case study of a manager involves the necessary but not-so-desirable aspects of being a manager, including manage the physical working environment, finances, turnover, etc. Managers could be criticized for over-engaging or under-engaging with the administrator role (Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003). This suggests that these administrative aspects tend to be necessary components of a manager identity, although they are often not what makes a manager acknowledged or be perceived as effective. They are the non-discretionary or essential elements—or the parts that are included in the definition—of the manager identity. However, there is neither much scope for variation in managers’ engagement in these behaviors, nor are these behaviors a source of reward or recognition for managers.

Wilhelm and Bort (2013) showed that managers took on the role of a sense-maker. Managers are in a unique position to integrate, prioritize, and make conclusions based on information from various sources, thereby monitoring and facilitating collective sensemaking of the external environment (Mintzberg, 1973; Koveshnikov et al., 2016; Wilhelm & Bort, 2013). Wilhelm and Bort (2013) highlighted that managers appeared focused on the idea of structuring the external environment to be able to execute a personal agenda. Qualitative accounts of managers in their study suggested that managers had to and were willing to draw from other bases of social power apart from hierarchical control to be able to bring about change. Due to their access to both internal and external information, managers are better able to make sense of situations (Langley et al., 2012), make inferences about how their own position would change due to impending events (Brocklehurst, Grey, & Sturdy, 2010; Vough, Bataille, Noh, & Lee, 2015), decide on a way to resolve potential conflicts and threats to their identities (Valcour, 2002), and also provide a clearer picture to their subordinates about the best way forward for their unit (Langley et al., 2012).

An important difference highlighted between the individual contributor and managers is the necessity for managers to be generalists rather than specialists (Austin, Regan, Gothard, & Carnochan, 2013; Hill, 1992). Relatedly, Hill (1992) and Watson (2001) suggested that managers need to make the transition from learning merely about the task to learning about individuals, including themselves. This is a critical transition to make, because managers (particularly first-level managers) are often promoted for their acumen and past performance as an individual contributor. Therefore, they are not only good at thinking and acting as an individual contributor, but are also most comfortable in wearing the hat of a specialist, and define their sense of self-esteem and satisfaction on the basis of being a specialist (Hill, 1992). Thus, the challenging part of making the

transition to becoming a manager is often the people-orientation that these individuals need to emphasize more than they may have done in their previous roles.

Being a manager – Identity work in the managerial role

Watson (2008) defined identity work as a “mutually constitutive process whereby people strive to shape a relatively coherent and distinctive notion of personal self-identity and struggle to come to terms with and, within limits, to influence the various social-identities which pertain to them in the various milieus in which they live their lives” (p. 129).² Sveningsson and Alvesson (2003) described identity work as the processes by which people form, repair, maintain, strengthen, or revise their identities. Thus, beyond the forming of identities upon transitioning into specific roles, identity work refers to the ongoing set of behaviors and interactions, along with the cognitions associated with making sense of these interactions associated with a particular identity (Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003). Identity work is likely to include inward-facing aspects, such as cognitions about one’s behaviors and interactions, as well as outward facing aspects, that involve the presentation of the self to others (Down & Reveley, 2009; Goffman, 1959).

Individuals often have to negotiate conflicting situations and demands on themselves by engaging in identity work, which provides clarity both to themselves and to their stakeholders about courses of action and related justifications. Identity work sometimes involves making choices about the content of one’s identity or about which constituencies or role alters to focus on for feedback and self-verification. For example,

² I point out the distinction in the definition and consideration of ‘identity’ and the ‘self’ in the streams of research on identity work and multiple identities. Watson’s (2008; 2009) definition is in line with research on identity work, where the word ‘identity’ is used interchangeably with ‘self-identity’ (the entirety) as well as ‘sub-identities’ (constituent identities that form the entirety). In this dissertation, I use ‘self’ as being singular, and comprised of several ‘identities’.

the manager in Down and Reveley's study (2009) verified his sense of self from his subordinates who provided him confirming feedback about being a manager. Brocklehurst et al. (2010) showed that individuals who felt that the title of a manager was being denigrated chose to use alternative ways of describing themselves based on their individual preferences and contexts as leaders, change agents, directors, consultants, advocates, or entrepreneurs. Vough et al. (2015) showed that managers engaged in various identity sensemaking behaviors such as maintaining, enhancing, protecting, and restructuring their identities based on their interpretation of their impending retirement.

Individual identity construction happens through the reconciliation or negotiation between individuals' personal choice and social contexts' orchestrated regulations (role alters as well as organizational context) (Alvesson & Willmott, 2002). Giddens (1991) and McAdams (1996) suggested that individuals access and make sense of their identities in the form of narratives or a biography. A clear understanding of what forms the self-identity emerges from these individuals' reflective narratives. Over time these self-narratives or autobiographies are also negotiated with others and modified accordingly (Ainsworth & Hardy, 2004; McAdams, 1996). Individuals further use social cues about roles they occupy to construct their own identity narratives, based on their interactions with others (Goffman, 1959). They use narratives to make sense of their identities.

When individuals assume their new managerial positions, their narratives about their identity tend to be unstable. The negotiation and self-verification process with their role alters allows them to construct a meaningful manager identity over time (Down & Reveley, 2009; Hill, 1992). Hill (1992) showed that this process could take several months as manager identity includes understanding expectations and obtaining self-verifying feedback from different types of role alters. Watson (2009) suggested a

process-based approach similar to the multiple sub-identities idea in identity content, where he suggested that managers are likely to have multiple sub-narratives, and one overarching manager identity narrative to string them all together. Clarke, Brown, and Hailey (2009) showed that managers understand the contradictions embedded in the manager role, and use identity narratives to link contradictory extremes of the managerial role such as extent of emotional detachment vs. engagement, professionalism vs. non-professionalism, and business vs. people orientation.

Summary

Research on manager identity construction traces the path of managers as they make sense of, define, and communicate their manager identities. However, an important aspect that this domain of research ignores is the multifinality of the identity construction process—in other words, the possibility that the outcome of these various sub-processes involved in identity construction could be different. This could happen for two different reasons. First, although clear indications of role requirements may exist, individuals may still vary on the extent to which they think and behave like managers (Kunda, 1992; Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003). On the one hand, the struggles faced by the individual during identity construction may make them drop out of the role or stay in the role as incompetent managers, who still think like individual contributors. Individuals have some agency in their adoption of the manager identity, in that different individuals may choose to adopt a manager identity and retain their existing individual contributor identity to different extents, and balance these identities in different ways (Pratt & Foreman, 2000; Pratt, Rockmann, & Kaufmann, 2006). Therefore, a detailed examination of the extent of the adoption of the manager identity relative to other identities, captured in *manager*

identity prominence, is necessary to be able to predict manager behaviors with more accuracy.

Second, the time taken and issues faced by individuals in constructing their identities suggest that the manager identity differs from other organizational or social identities in its complexity. Reinforcing predictions of symbolic interactionism, it is likely that individuals' own characteristics and aspects of the environment are likely to play an important role in the shaping of the manager identity, and to therefore affect the behaviors and effectiveness of managers. This necessitates the consideration of individual and contextual moderators to fully understand and predict managers' behaviors and their effectiveness.

In summary, research on manager identity construction and narratives suggests that individuals engage in various sensemaking processes to construct, make sense of, and understand their manager identity. As a result, research on identity narratives and the narratives themselves tend to be more retrospective and descriptive, rather than predictive of managerial behaviors. Thus, I now turn my focus to understanding when and how manager identity prominence affects the engagement in associated managerial behaviors.

MULTIPLE IDENTITIES AND IDENTITY PROMINENCE

To understand identity prominence, it is necessary to introduce briefly, the concept of multiple identities. James (1923) put forth the idea of individuals as a collection of selves or a "self of selves", where he suggested that individuals have several different identities, and an overall sense of "I" or ego (James, 1923). This was later supported by Erikson (1968), who suggested that several "selves" or identities made up the composite self, and by Mead (1934), who suggested that individuals are a "parliament

of selves”. James also suggested that individuals toggle between these selves (or identities) as they go about engaging with multiple sets of others in society. Thus, individuals engage in self-reflection of themselves situated within and interacting with elements from the society. This self-reflection results in their understanding the various identities that form a part of their selves, and in their construction and management of these identities (James, 1923).

Prior research suggests that there are various ways in which individuals organize their various identities. Identities could be mutually exclusive or overlapping (Ashforth, 2007). Individuals could define their overall self as a complex whole of several related identities overlapping with each other to different extents, or as multiple unrelated identities that do not overlap (Roccas & Brewer, 2002). The extent of overlap between the various identities is referred to as identity integration, wherein individuals are able to draw from multiple identities to engage in behaviors, at the same time (Berry, 1990; Cheng, Sanchez-Burks, & Lee, 2008). Individuals could also maintain strong boundaries between various identities, and keep transitioning in and out of their different identities through micro-role transitions (Ashforth, 2001). They could manage multiple identities by identifying synergies between two identities, or suppressing one identity to be able to enact a more favored identity (Pratt & Foreman, 2000; Wiesenfeld & Hewlin, 2003).

Burke and Reitzes (1981) further suggested that the individual has several choices of behavior in the repertoire of the self, which are likely to represent different identities, and that the individual chooses to invoke a particular identity. Individuals’ choice of behaviors depends on the audience they are interacting with (Goffman, 1959). Given the several ways in which individuals manage their identity (see Ramarajan, 2014 for a review), an understanding of the relative importance of identities is critical because it

provides insights into the extent to which a particular identity is representative of an individual compared to other identities. Irrespective of how individuals organize or manage their identities, engaging in behaviors is an act of choosing one identity that dominates the individual's sense of self more than any other identity (Burke & Reitzes, 1981). Therefore, in this dissertation, I focus on prominence of the manager identity relative to the many identities that form a part of the individual's self at work. I integrate concepts from identity theory and social identity theory to understand how the manager identity is likely to be preferentially invoked for individuals relative to their other work-related identities.

Identity prominence

The earliest proposition of the organization of (and therefore the relative importance of) different identities can be attributed to James (1923). He described individuals as deriving more self-esteem from certain identities, and being more concerned about negative feedback about those identities, compared to others. This suggests that identities may vary in terms of their level of subjective importance to the individual. James also described an inner nucleus or "the sanctuary within the citadel" of the self as a (spiritual) core around which the various identities of the individual were clustered. He suggested that this nucleus can be consciously felt (physically and psychologically) by the individual. This suggests that the closer an identity is to this inner core or nucleus of the self, the more important it is to the definition of the self than other identities. McCall and Simmons (1978) subsequently put forth the idea of identity prominence, defined as the importance of one particular identity relative to the other identities that constitute the self. Ashforth (2001) referred to this as the personal or subjective importance of a particular identity with respect to other identities.

McCall and Simmons (1978) suggested that individuals organized their identities in the form of a prominence hierarchy to construct and make sense of their ideal self. Identity prominence refers to the ranking of a particular identity in the hierarchy of prominence for the individual, or the ideal self (McCall & Simmons, 1978). An identity placed higher in the hierarchy implies that individuals provide and receive higher support from their interaction partners for that identity, are committed to and have invested resources into the enacting that identity, and receive intrinsic and extrinsic gratification by enacting that identity (McCall & Simmons, 1978). Identity prominence is similar to the idea of relative identification as suggested by Mussweiler and colleagues (Mussweiler, Gabriel, & Bodenhausen, 2000), although identity prominence refers to the difference in importance of a particular identity with all other competing identities rather than the difference between two identities.

The primary mechanism by which identity prominence influences behavior is that prominence leads to individuals creating opportunity structures—or in other words, providing and gathering resources from others, and making changes to their external environment—for identity enactment (McCall & Simmons, 1966; Stets & Burke, 2000; Swann, 1987). Individuals are likely to modify the work they engage in to match a prominent identity, and therefore are more likely to engage in job-crafting—defined as the process by which individuals reimagine and redesign what they do such that their work becomes more meaningful to them (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Roberts, Dutton, Spreitzer, Heaphy, and Quinn (2005) suggested that individuals are likely to choose their social environments and interaction partners such that they are able to express their ideal selves at work. Identity prominence also makes individuals persistent and committed towards pursuing actions that would help them be better at performing behaviors related to the identity. For example, Pope and Hall (2015) showed that a

prominent coach identity led to individuals stay committed and remain as a coach for longer periods of time.

Individuals are likely to invest effort into refining and perfecting the characteristics of their more prominent identities, and to neglect those identities which are not important to them. For example, Ibarra (1999) showed that newcomers improved their investment banker and management consultant identities by embodying characteristics of role-model colleagues who had similar identities and were able to be successful in their roles. Individuals may try to improve their performance in behaviors associated with their prominent identities by suppressing behaviors that are not in accordance with that identity, or by distancing themselves with the identities lower down in their hierarchy of prominence, a phenomenon referred to as *identicide* (Ashforth, 2001; Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008) or *overdisidentification* (Dukerich, Kramer, & McLean-Parks, 1998). This may in turn result in jeopardizing entities associated with suppressed identities. For example, a manager who disidentifies with the organization because of a extremely prominent manager identity may not care about negatively impacting the organization as long as they are able to pursue their own managerial agenda. Dukerich and colleagues showed that individuals can be aggressive in focusing their efforts on one identity at the expense of others, which could have negative consequences such as abuse of associations or power for justifying wrongdoing. Over-prioritizing one identity over others has also been shown to result in reduction in behavioral adaptability (Linville, 1987; Pratt & Foreman, 2000) and overall well-being (Thoits, 1983).

Two related constructs to identity prominence—identity centrality (or psychological centrality or identification) and identity salience—describe how

representative an identity is for an individual's overall sense of self, although not relative to other identities. These constructs have been used interchangeably with prominence in prior research. Despite their distinctiveness from identity prominence, a lot can be inferred from the consequences of centrality and salience owing to the similarity between the constructs, in that they represent the importance of a particular identity. I define these constructs, review prior research on their effects on cognition and behavior, and compare them with identity prominence.

Identity centrality. Identity centrality has been used to capture the importance of a role identity to the individual's self. Identity centrality, often used interchangeably with identification, refers to the self-attributed subjective importance of an identity (Ashforth, 2001). Centrality represents the extent to which the identity is an essential character of the self (Rosenberg, 1979; Stryker & Serpe, 1994). Centrality implies that the individual provides considerable cognitive resources thinking about that identity (Cameron, 2004) and is motivated to engage in actions that reinforces the identity (Hoang & Gimeno, 2010). A global definition of identity prominence provided by McCall and Simmons (1978) overlaps with the definition of centrality that a prominent identity is an important part of the self, suggesting that the identity highest in the prominence hierarchy is also highly likely to be central to the individual's sense of self. The social identity theory perspective on centrality assumes that individuals consciously have certain identities that are more subjectively important to the way they think of themselves, and they decide to activate the more important identity depending on the situation they find themselves in (Hogg et al., 1995). Centrality captures the extent of this subjective importance, and depends almost exclusively on that individual's ascribed importance to that identity.

Centrality has often been studied under various other names such as psychological centrality (Stryker & Serpe, 1994), psychological importance (Thoits, 2012), role identity (Farmer & van Dyne, 2010), or identity strength (Day & Sin, 2011). As discussed earlier, prior research has examined the effects of having a role identity on behaviors associated with the role (Farmer & van Dyne, 2010; Stets, 2005; Thoits, 2012). In these studies, the importance of that role identity or the extent to which individuals engaged in behaviors that corresponded with that role were related positively to effectiveness. Day and Sin (2011) showed that having a strong leader identity is positively related to leader effectiveness and their development over time.

Underlying most of these findings are two mechanisms by which centrality influences behavior. First, identity centrality leads to clarity and prioritization of action, where individuals know how they want to and need to behave in any given situation. As centrality refers to how much a particular identity matters, it is associated with prioritizing behaviors related to that identity more than others (Stryker & Serpe, 1994). Hoang and Gimeno (2010) showed that having a central founder identity strengthened individuals' convictions to transition out of their traditional jobs to become entrepreneurs. Second, due to its subjective importance, identity centrality has an inherent motivational component. Individuals who perceive that a certain identity is central spend a lot of time thinking about that identity (Cameron, 2004), and feel the need to improve their portrayal of that identity and therefore engage in more effort in performing behaviors associated with that identity (Day & Sin, 2011). For example, founder identity centrality has been shown to be related to a sense of entrepreneurial passion and serve as a motivation to develop new relationships that correspond to the entrepreneurial role (Hoang & Gimeno, 2010; Murnieks, Mosakowski, & Cardon, 2014). Thus, identity centrality leads to the

conviction and motivation for individuals to engage in behaviors associated with the central identity.

A construct related to centrality and sometimes defined and used interchangeably is *role identification*, defined as the extent to which an individual (at least partially) defines himself or herself at least partly in terms of the perceived role identity (Ashforth, 2001). Role identification is also defined as the degree of overlap between an entity (a role, a person, or a social category) and an individual's view of their self (Bartel, 2001; Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000). Ashforth's (2001) described role identification as a perception that "This is who I am here" or the extent to which an individual includes an entity or a role as a part of his or her self-definition (Tropp & Wright, 1999). Although role identification is different from the importance of the role identity to the individual (Ashforth, 2001), they are likely to be positively related. Role identification makes individuals feel more cognitively and affectively connected with the role and with other individuals who are identified with the role (Ashforth, 2001). Joshi and Fast (2013) showed that individuals are more likely to identify with roles that provide them with higher power. Pearsall, Ellis, and Bell (2010) showed that team members' identification with specific roles allowed teams to develop better mental models and transactive memory systems, thereby improving their overall performance. Thus, it is likely that identification is a necessary condition for identity centrality, and that identification with a role or category could lead to that identity becoming more important to the individual over time.

Identity salience. Identity salience implies that the identity has the highest probability of being invoked across situations (Stryker & Serpe, 1994). It has been shown to positively influence the enactment of the identity across situations, the extent to which

individuals develop their self-esteem from the identity, and the extent to which they seek out situations to enact the identity (Stryker, 1968; Stryker & Serpe, 1982). Salience has been shown to have a reciprocal relationship with the commitment and resources devoted to that identity by the individual (Stryker & Serpe, 1982; Thoits, 2013). An identity could become salient even without the individual actively choosing it to be so (Stryker & Serpe, 1994). For example, when individuals have committed a lot of time and resources to an identity, and performed behaviors related to that identity consistently, their response to similar situations occurs without much thought (Stryker & Serpe, 1982; Thoits, 2013).

Identity salience relates to enactment of behaviors pertaining to that identity, and the deriving of a sense of self-esteem from that identity. For example, Callero (1985) showed that individuals with a salient volunteer identity are likely to engage in volunteering behaviors. Lobel and St. Clair (1992) showed that salient career identities compared to family identities (i.e., the relative prominence of the career identities compared to family identities) led to the investment of more effort and higher rewards at work. Yitshaki and Kropp (2016) showed that a strong founder identity salience led to entrepreneurial behavior enactment. Individuals develop a sense of purpose, self-esteem, and well-being from enacting salient identities (Thoits, 1991; 2012; 2013). Enacting a salient identity provides individuals with a sense of accomplishment, positive affect, and satisfaction from that identity (Thoits, 2013). These factors are also likely to reinforce the enactment of the salient identity over time.

Identity salience could also refer to situational salience (Ashforth, 2001; McCall and Simmons, 1978). Situational salience has its roots in psychological social psychology literature, and refers to the person-situation interaction, where situational strength is responsible in invoking a particular identity to the cognitive forefront (McCall &

Simmons, 1978). Identity salience signifies invocation readiness (Thoits, 2013), which refers to the probability that a particular identity will be invoked. This idea has strong roots in sociological social psychology literature, which asserts that this probability is generic across situations and contexts for a given individual (Stryker, 1980; Stryker & Serpe, 1994). Although identity salience has been used interchangeably to refer to situational salience or salience across situations, the latter definition is closer and more relevant to the comparison with prominence. Prominence and identity salience are likely to lead to situational salience, as the subjective (relative) importance of an identity makes it more likely to be invoked across situations, notwithstanding the strength of situations themselves (Ashforth, 2001; Hunt & Benford, 1994). Recent empirical research in this realm has demonstrated that identity prominence is likely to lead to identity salience (Brenner, Serpe, & Stryker, 2016).

The choice of prominence. The three constructs of identity prominence, identification or identity centrality, and identity salience share a common core definition of representativeness of an identity to the self, although they capture it from slightly different angles. One reason for such a difference is that the three constructs have been used to study identity by scholars from different theoretical backgrounds. Whereas identity salience has been used from a micro-sociological perspective (Stryker, 1968; 1980; Stryker & Serpe, 1994), prominence and centrality (identification) are more popular among social psychological scholars (Ashforth, 2001; McCall & Simmons, 1978; Rosenberg, 1979). Other scholars are agnostic to the differences between the three constructs and use them interchangeably (Callero, 1985; Gecas, 1982; Thoits, 2012; 2013). Given the focus of this dissertation on the contrast of the manager identity to other identities in the workplace, prominence is a more appropriate and relevant construct than centrality, identification, or salience.

Whereas centrality or identification, and salience, focus on the absolute extent of overlap or affiliation an individual perceives with an entity or a role, individuals particularly in the organizational context identify with multiple foci. Quite often the different entities that individuals are identified with are themselves related or nested within each other (Ashforth et al., 2008). For example, the managerial role is related to the team and the organization, and the team is nested within the department, and the organization. Therefore, individuals' identification with these foci are often positively correlated (Ashforth et al., 2008). However, although individuals could be highly identified with multiple entities or roles (high centrality), they are likely to prioritize or rank these identities into a hierarchy (McCall & Simmons, 1978). Thus, regardless of centrality, it becomes essential to examine the relative importance of any given identity as a relevant predictor of behaviors and effectiveness associated with that identity. This relative importance is better captured by prominence than by examining a combination of centrality, identification, or salience of multiple identities. I now propose a definition of manager identity prominence and explicate its characteristics and expected outcomes.

DEFINING MANAGER IDENTITY PROMINENCE

Manager identity prominence denotes the representativeness of the manager identity—being in charge of a team or a group of individuals—to the self, relative to the other groups or roles that the individual may occupy at work. According to social identity theory, an individual whose manager identity is more prominent ranks the manager identity higher in the hierarchy of work-related identities (McCall & Simmons, 1978). These individuals are likely to perceive that the manager identity is a more important or dominant part of who they are than other identities (Ashforth, 2001; Cameron, 2004), than their identity as a team member or an individual contributor. These individuals are

likely to prioritize values, meanings, and actions associated with the manager identity over those associated with other identities they may hold in the organization, such as being an organizational employee, an individual contributor, a team member, or a member of a profession. Identity theory predicts that for these individuals, the manager identity has a higher probability than other identities of being invoked across work situations and decision-making contexts (Stryker, 1980; Stryker & Serpe, 1994). Before explaining my hypotheses on manager identity prominence, I integrate ideas from identity theory and social identity theory to explicate the fundamental characteristics of a prominent manager identity, an understanding of which is essential to predict behaviors associated with manager identity prominence.

Identity prominence is associated with *self-definition* or the derivation of a sense of self from that identity. In other words, when an identity is prominent, individuals are more likely to define, identify, and express themselves in terms of that identity (Stryker & Serpe, 1994; Thoits, 2013). For example, when their teacher identity is prominent, individuals are likely to perceive themselves to be teachers and introduce themselves as a teacher to others when they first meet them, rather than as a researcher or an administrator. It is also likely that a prominent identity influences self-narratives, where the prominent identity becomes the common thread with which individuals connect their past lives and narrate their life story (McAdams, 1996). When a manager identity is prominent, individuals are likely to spend more time thinking about themselves as a manager (Cameron, 2004), and perceive a sense of oneness with the values associated with that identity (Ashforth, 2001).

Second, individuals develop a sense of *self-esteem and well-being* from the prominent identities (Thoits, 2013). Research has shown that there is a reciprocal

relationship between self-esteem and identity salience, in that, an identity which provides individuals with high self-esteem is also likely to become salient over time (DeGarmo, 2010; Thoits, 2013). Relatedly for identity prominence, McCall and Simmons (1978) suggested that when individuals perceive that a particular identity receives support from others, they are likely to feel that that identity is more important to their sense of self than other identities. For example, when subordinates keep reinforcing their managers' claims of leadership within the team, the manager is likely to feel his or her manager identity acknowledged and granted (Bartel & Dutton, 2001, DeRue & Ashford, 2001). The manager identity then becomes more prominent in the individual's identity hierarchy, and becomes a source of self-esteem for the individual (McCall & Simmons, 1978). Correspondingly, negative impacts to a prominent identity will also have more adverse effects on the individual's self-esteem than when the identity is not prominent (Gecas & Seff, 1990).

Third, identity prominence is strongly associated with *identity enactment*. Recent research has demonstrated that identity prominence likely results in identity salience, which in turn results in higher likelihood of enactment of that identity across contexts and situations (Brenner et al., 2014). A prominent identity is recalled by the focal individual more often than other identities. It is used more often as a sense-making tool to interpret and respond to situations, and therefore becomes more visible even to interaction partners as more representative of the focal individual (Ashforth, 2001). Prominence hierarchies make it easier for individuals to manage their multiple identities. An individual could be a consultant, a tennis player, a mother, a daughter, as well as a volunteer. However, if the consultant identity of the individual is more prominent than the other identities, the individual is more likely to invoke the consultant identity across multiple situations. This would potentially result in spillover effects, where some of the characteristics of the

consultant identity are seen even when the individual is engaged with others outside her workplace (Rothbard & Ramarajan, 2009). This stems from the fact that individuals like to maintain consistency between their identities and their behaviors. When this consistency is broken, it results in cognitive dissonance, and individuals immediately try to resolve it by either changing their behaviors, reducing the rank of the identity in the prominence hierarchy, or building a narrative that would allow them to maintain the prominence of the identity and still make sense of their behaviors.

Fourth, identity prominence is associated with higher *commitment and support* being provided to that identity compared to other identities.³ Ashforth and Mael (1989) suggested that identity involves a significant affective component, or a feeling of oneness with an entity or a role. Social identity theory suggests that identities are of emotional significance to individuals and that stronger associations with the identity are likely to be associated with stronger positive emotions (Pratt, 1998; Tajfel, 1982). McCall and Simmons (1978) suggested that individuals engage in actions that would provide and seek emotional support and commitment to their more prominent identities. For example, if an individual's manager identity is prominent, he or she is likely to invest in training and development, and seek advice about how to improve their performance as a manager (Ashford & Tsui, 1991). Such individuals are likely to feel happier when they received positive feedback about their prominent identity and feel high stress if they received negative feedback about it. Thus, identity prominence leads to the deliberate investment of support by the self and solicitation of support for the identity from significant others.

³ Commitment here refers to the individual's commitment towards (enacting) the identity, and not commitment towards an entity, as with organizational commitment.

Another way by which individuals seek support and maintain commitment to a prominent identity is by *controlling their external environments*, or by creating social *opportunity structures* or niches that provides them with the space, time, and contexts, to enact their prominent identities. McCall and Simmons (1978) suggested that individuals are likely to seek out social settings where they can enact their prominent identities. They are likely to modify or create social environments such that they support their self-views (Swann, 1987). Therefore, when individuals' entrepreneurial identity is prominent, they will be motivated to create the opportunity structures for themselves such as moving to a city that supports a start-up culture, engaging in networking activities that would boost their network with potential investors, etc. Prior research has also shown that identity salience results in attempts to control and modify the external environment to be able to successfully enact the identity (Stets & Burke, 2000). This stems from one of the fundamental motives of control which drives individuals to adopt a particular identity (Ashforth, 2001). Ashforth suggested that a strong role identification makes individuals likely to exert their influence using the legitimacy they believe is afforded to them by the position. Thus, those with higher manager identity prominence are likely to demonstrate controlling behaviors to exert their influence over their immediate environment and stakeholders. They could potentially engage in defensive and manipulative behaviors during their interactions with their subordinates or with other teams in their organizations. To consolidate their position as a manager, and their team's position and resources, these managers could display self-serving behaviors at the expense of other entities in the organization and the disproportionate accumulation of resources through competitive negotiations with their peers and superiors (Brown & Robinson, 2007; Yukl, 1999).

Finally, another way in which individuals exhibit a commitment towards their prominent identity is by *safeguarding the entities* which have to exist for them to define and sustain the prominent identity. In other words, individuals prefer to protect the constituencies that need to exist for their identity to make sense and for them to be able to enact their identity (James, 1923). Laing (1961) suggested the complementarity of identities in that, individuals are likely to have an existential crisis when the individual or the entity that provides them with a particular identity ceases to exist. Therefore, it is in the individual's own best interests to associate more with and safeguard the constituencies that contribute to their prominent identities (Massey & Abu-Baker, 2009). Indeed, this may also stem from a sense of attachment with the entity or the role alter. For example, a father is likely to protect his child because of affective attachment towards the child, rather than for the selfish reason that his "father" identity is meaningful only as long as the child exists (Laing, 1961). Safeguarding and maintaining harmonious relationships with complementary entities associated with an identity makes individuals comfortable with the social structure they exist and interact in (Hogg et al., 1995; Swann & Hill, 1982). As a result, higher manager identity prominence is likely to make individuals strive to maintain the social structure that afforded them the manager identity, or in other words, work to ensure that they have positive relationships with those they interact with in the capacity of a manager. They are likely to maintain good relations with their subordinates, and work towards their satisfaction in their teams.

Distinction from related constructs

Manager identity prominence is distinct from other similar constructs such as managerial self-efficacy, motivation to lead, and role identification. A comparison of identity prominence with these constructs is summarized in Appendix 1.

Managerial self-efficacy is defined as the perceived ability to meet the competence expectations associated with the managerial role (Fast, Burris, & Bartel, 2014). Managerial self-efficacy is similar to manager identity prominence in that they are both likely to be associated with higher self-esteem being derived from the managerial role, and are to lead to higher managerial effectiveness. As a result of this similarity, they are likely to be positively correlated. Efficacy could indeed lead to identity becoming prominent. For example, when an individual feels that he or she is performing well as a manager, that is likely to lead to a sense of gratification, which would in turn motivate a higher sense of commitment to that identity, thereby making the manager identity more prominent for that individual (McCall & Simmons, 1978). However, there are two key differences between managerial self-efficacy and manager identity prominence. First, having a prominent identity is more reflective of prioritizing and preferring to engage in certain behaviors, because doing so is a natural response, and one that is consistent with the individual's self. Similarly, whereas self-efficacy suggests that the individual may be effective as a manager, but doesn't necessarily imply that a manager identity is important to the individual. Second, the cognitive mechanisms involved with self-efficacy and identity prominence are different. Self-efficacy invokes a sense of confidence that the individual is likely to succeed at managerial tasks (Fast et al., 2014). However, identity prominence invokes a motivation to engage in certain behaviors for want of consistency between the individuals' definition of the self and their actions.

Motivation to manage is defined as the desire to satisfy requirements of a traditional managerial role in bureaucratic organizations (Miner, 1978). There is a possible overlap between manager identity prominence and motivation to manage in that they make managers more motivated to engage in administrative activities (Miner, 1978). However, there is an important difference between the two constructs. Motivation to

manage is representative of a specific stereotype of managers, who were focused towards being assertive, competitive, and having a preference towards looking good in front of supervisors, potentially at the expense of dominating subordinates. Therefore, it is more similar to need for power and an advancement motive in the organization, rather than the enactment of other managerial behaviors. Manager identity prominence is broader in its definition, in that it is focused on the representativeness of the manager identity to the self, rather than on any particular content of the managerial role itself.

A final distinction stems from the definition of the manager identity as a role-based identity. The prominence of the identity based on a formal managerial role is different than *role identification* with a social category (such as the organization, or a group of fellow managers) or *categorization*. First, because of the assumption that roles are specific cases of social categories (Ashforth, 2001), categorization is more useful to predict behavioral conformity to expectations associated with a role with other role occupants, than to predict interactions with role alters. Unlike with social category-based identities, where those who do not belong to the social category are considered members of the out-group, with role identities, role alters are important determinants of role expectations. Theory on symbolic interactionism suggests that it is based on these interactions with role alters that the role expectations and the identity itself come to be defined (Stryker, 1980). However, identification with social categories is likely to make members generalize role alters as out-group members, thereby making it unlikely to capture differences in interactions with different role alters (subordinates vs. superiors). Second, as categorization pertains to self-definition into a particular role, it is more likely to be a possible outcome of identity prominence. However, although self-definition in terms of an identity and prominence of that identity are likely to be positively related, it is possible that an individual whose manager identity is more prominent compared to other

identities still does not define himself or herself as a manager, and vice versa (Ashforth, 2001; Thoits, 2013). Further, manager identity prominence is likely to have a significant influence on behavior even if individuals do not categorize themselves as managers, since prominence refers to the relative importance of the manager identity compared to all other identities.

Summary

As is evident from the definition and the description of manager identity prominence, some of the consequences of a prominent manager identity could be in conflict with each other. For example, the urge to exert control over the external environment could make managers feel the need to autonomously exert power and influence over their immediate stakeholders, both within and outside the team. This may make them more restrictive or controlling. On the other hand, a prominent manager identity is also likely to make them feel the sense of safeguarding the interests of the entities that afforded them their manager identity. This could result in a feeling of inclusion and protection for their subordinates and also of loyalty or obligation towards their superiors or their organization at large. For other identities which are either focused on a particular task (e.g. volunteer, helper, creative worker), or membership to a social category (e.g. organization, team), identity prominence results either in the fulfillment of role expectations or the conformity to social expectations or group norms. However, the complexity of the manager role requirements and the multiplicity of interaction partners makes manager identity prominence unamenable to drawing such straightforward conclusions. Engagement in managerial behaviors could take different forms (e.g. inclusive or restrictive) and could lead to contrasting outcomes not only for managers and their interaction partners, but also for their teams and organizations at large. As a result, it

becomes essential to examine the nuanced and moderated relationships between manager identity prominence and managerial behaviors.

Chapter 3: Hypotheses Development

In this chapter, I explain how manager identity prominence could lead to higher engagement in managerial behaviors focused on their teams. In doing so, I demonstrate that managing team decisions and access to resources can be attained in a more inclusive or a more restrictive manner. In other words, managers could exhibit more or less consideration for other entities such as their subordinates or stakeholders external to the team. I then argue that the manner in which managers engage in these behaviors is contingent on the meanings individuals attach to interacting with others at work. In the following section, I examine managers' prosocial motivation and social dominance orientation and their influence on the prominence-behavior relationships. I also integrate from strategic management research on managerial discretion to understand how the degree of autonomy provided to managers by the context influences the relationships between manager identity prominence and behaviors.

MANAGER IDENTITY PROMINENCE AND DECISIONAL BEHAVIORS

Manager identity prominence is likely to lead to higher attention being provided to decision making for the team rather than focusing on individual tasks. Mintzberg (1973) suggested that managers focus on higher level aspects of planning and coordination of the team's tasks. Making decisions about such planning and coordination becomes more important for those with a prominent manager identity. This is because the power that comes with the position that managers occupy is more salient for those who prioritize their manager identity. Compared to those with a strong individual contributor identity, individuals with a prominent manager identity are likely to develop a sense of

ownership over coordination across the individual tasks of their team members, rather than over specific tasks.

While manager identity prominence positively affects the focus on team decision making, managers also have some discretion in terms of the manner in which they structure the process of making team decisions. On one hand, they could be more inclusive, empowering subordinates to make decisions on specific tasks while they themselves focus on higher level aspects of planning and coordinating tasks across team members (Mintzberg, 1973). On the other hand, they could be more restrictive, preventing subordinates from contributing to or influencing the decision-making process (Scandura, Graen, & Novak, 1986), and from suggesting changes to the way team tasks are accomplished (Detert & Edmondson, 2011; George & Zhou, 2001).

Manager identity prominence could act as a sensemaking tool that makes managers focus on higher level planning and use their formal authority only to intervene in times of deadlocks and conflicts, rather than engage in routine task decisions which are better left to individual contributors working directly on the task (Dobrajska et al., 2015). On the other hand, manager identity prominence may also be associated with heightened sense of control and ownership, which could lead to the need to exert individual control over the external environment, and therefore retain decision-making authority to themselves. I explain these relationships in detail below.

Delegation. Delegation is defined as the extent to which managers provide their subordinates with decision making authority and responsibility for certain activities (Bass, 1990; Leana, 1986; Schriesheim, Neider, & Scandura, 1998). Managers are expected to focus their attention on planning and monitoring (Mintzberg, 1973), while allowing subordinates to make decisions on specific tasks, and avoiding the need to

endorse and approve their work at every stage. Whereas at the most basic level, delegation could refer to task allocation to subordinates, it also involves letting go of some decision-making power concerning specific lower-level aspects of the task or every-day issues. Several factors have been shown to affect delegation. Managers delegate more to subordinates when issues are less critical (Leana, 1986), when they have confidence in subordinates' knowledge and capabilities (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Dobrajska, Billinger, & Karim, 2015; Leana, 1987), when subordinates have better access to information (Shapira, 1976), and when they trust their subordinates (Schriesheim et al., 1998; Scandura et al., 1986).

Managers may delegate more if being a manager is representative and important to their sense of self. Individuals who have a prominent manager identity are likely to feel a higher sense of control from occupying the managerial position, which makes them focus on higher level abstract planning and coordination rather than specific and minor aspects of decision making. Recent findings from Haselhuhn, Wong, and Ormiston (2017) also suggest that when individuals have a higher sense of power, they perceive a higher sense of control over the environment in which they operate, and thereby feel more comfortable giving up some of that control to their subordinates. Such individuals are willing to let go of the responsibility on specific tasks to their subordinates and focus more on managing overall accountability, planning, and monitoring of all tasks assigned to the team. Individuals with a prominent manager identity feel the necessity to arrange their external environment such that they can effectively enact that identity (McCall & Simmons, 1978). Accordingly, empowering subordinates to make certain decisions allows those with prominent manager identities to focus on other more overarching aspects of their job and therefore enact their managerial roles more efficiently (Leana, 1986).

Micromanagement. Focus and attention on team decision-making could also be manifest through micromanagement, which refers to managing things closely, evaluating work under close scrutiny, and in general maintaining tight control over how tasks are accomplished in teams (Wright, 2000). Managers who engage in micromanagement restrict input from subordinates on how team processes can be structured. Such managers engage in close supervision to make sure that subordinates are following instructions and sticking to rules decided upon by the manager (George & Zhou, 2001). They are obsessed with details and often become a bottleneck as all decisions have to go through them (White, 2010). These managers impose constraints over subordinates and provide them with little or no voice in making changes or improvements to processes and systems within the teams (Eberly, Johnson, Hernandez, & Avolio, 2013). These managers are likely to construe any attempt to change these processes or systems as a direct challenge to their own decision-making authority (Detert & Edmondson, 2011).

Manager identity prominence could lead to higher micromanagement among managers. Micromanagement could result from a high level of psychological ownership (Brown & Baer, 2015), or in other words a sense of possessiveness over team decisions (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004), where managers feel that making decisions about team processes and tasks is an important aspect of their identity. Manager identity prominence is likely to result in a sense of territoriality—defined as an expression of feelings of strong ownership toward a physical or social object (Brown, Lawrence, & Robinson, 2005). Individuals who are high on manager identity prominence are likely to feel passionate or territorial about processes and systems that they had put in place with respect to team functioning. This may make them more likely to perceive that their position as a manager provides them with the authority over every team decision (Blankenship & Miles, 1968). Territoriality has been shown to reduce solicitation of ideas

from coworkers and subordinates (Brown & Baer, 2015; Gray, Knight, & Baer, 2015). Territoriality is associated with a strong sense of possessiveness and the necessity to engage in behaviors that signal to others that they are in charge.

Considering the contradictory nature of delegation and micromanagement, I argue that the propensity of managers high on manager identity prominence to engage in one or the other type of decisional behaviors in their teams is contingent on the meaning they attach to interacting with immediate others in the organization. Unlike individual contributors, managers are more likely to engage others (i.e. their subordinates, or other stakeholders) to get work accomplished. However, given the leadership role that managers occupy within their teams, they are also expected to work towards guiding, encouraging, and developing their subordinates. Thus, the extent to which individuals are inherently motivated to work for the benefit of others, rather than using others as a means to achieve personal ends, is likely to affect the manner in which a prominent manager identity is likely to affect the nature of their managerial behaviors.

Interaction with prosocial motivation

Prosocial motivation is defined as the extent to which individuals desire to invest effort to benefit others (Batson, 1987), and to positively influence others' lives (Grant, 2007). Thus, individuals who are prosocially motivated are more likely to work merely because it is beneficial to their coworkers or to the organization, even if it is not something they intrinsically enjoy doing (Grant, 2008). They view benefit to others as a goal in itself (Grant, 2008). Prosocial motivation is associated with helping behaviors (Grant, 2007), cooperation (Beersma & De Dreu, 2002), and an enhanced service-orientation (Grant & Sumanth, 2009; Grant & Wrzesniewski, 2010; Hu, Jiang, Mo, Chen,

& Shi, 2016). Prosocially motivated individuals derive their self-esteem or social self-worth from working towards others' welfare (Grant, 2008). As a result, these individuals are more sensitive to their obligations towards others (Grant & Berry, 2011) and are likely to feel a sense of guilt if they are not able to fulfil these obligations (Schaumberg & Flynn, 2012). When the individuals are prosocially motivated, they consider using their role in society to engage in benefiting others, versus using others merely as a means towards achieving their personal goals.

I argue that the effects of manager identity prominence on behaviors aimed at benefiting others are likely to be influenced by prosocial motivation. When prosocial motivation is higher, those with high manager identity prominence are likely to perceive a higher sense of obligation to those entities associated with their manager identity (Schaumberg & Flynn, 2012). In other words, prosocially motivated individuals are more likely to act for the benefit of their subordinates when their manager identity is more prominent. Within their teams, they are likely to feel the need to support and empower their subordinates and provide them with opportunities to contribute and develop with the team. They believe that involving subordinates would help them develop, because they believe that developing subordinates is an important part of their managerial role. Therefore, I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 1: Prosocial motivation moderates the relationship between manager identity prominence and decisional behaviors, such that manager identity prominence is positively associated with inclusive decisional behaviors (delegation) when managers' prosocial motivation is higher.

Hypothesis 2: Prosocial motivation moderates the relationship between manager identity prominence and decisional behaviors, such that manager identity prominence is

negatively associated with restrictive decisional behaviors (micromanagement) when managers' prosocial motivation is higher.

Interaction with social dominance orientation

Social dominance orientation refers to the “view of human existence as zero-sum and relentless competition between groups, the desire for generalized, hierarchical relationships between social groups, and the desire for ingroup dominance and superiority over outgroups” (Sidanius, Pratto, Sinclair, & van Laar, 1996; p. 148). The orientation is considered a psychological disposition of individuals that develops and persists because of legitimizing and reinforcing social institutions such as roles and status hierarchies (Pratto, Sidanius, & Levin, 2006). Whereas individuals high on social dominance orientation believe that hierarchies are justified, and that higher-status groups or individuals can dominate over lower-status groups and individuals, those low on social dominance orientation believe more in equality of all individuals and groups (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). Prior research has demonstrated that social dominance orientation results in inferior perceptions of warmth and competence and negative reactions towards lower status groups and individuals (Aquino, Stewart, & Reed, 2005), and perceptions that voice should not be provided to those having authority (Islam & Zyphur, 2005). Social dominance theory is based on the rationale that there are hierarchy-enhancing and hierarchy-attenuating forces in society, and these forces stem from social institutions, roles, or ideologies (Sidanius, 1993). Individuals high on social dominance orientation are likely to attach a heightened sense of legitimacy to managerial roles and hierarchies in organizations.

I argue that the effects of manager identity prominence on decisional behaviors are moderated by managers' social dominance orientation. Particularly, when social dominance orientation is higher, managers are more likely to believe in clearer role definition and the separation of roles and responsibilities between themselves and those lower in hierarchical level (Sidanius, 1993). This clear definition of roles is likely to make them delegate less and retain decision-making authority when their manager identity is prominent. They are likely to safeguard the legitimacy they draw from the managerial role by not letting go of the control over team processes. Low social dominance orientation on the other hand is likely to lead to a desire for equality and a lower need for legitimacy of power and domination. Therefore, for such managers, manager identity prominence makes them more facilitative and inclusive in their decisional behaviors. Therefore, I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 3: Social dominance orientation moderates the relationship between manager identity prominence and decisional behaviors, such that manager identity prominence is negatively associated with inclusive decisional behaviors (delegation) when managers' social dominance orientation is higher.

Hypothesis 4: Social dominance orientation moderates the relationship between manager identity prominence and decisional behaviors, such that manager identity prominence is positively associated with restrictive decisional behaviors (micromanagement) when managers' social dominance orientation is higher.

MANAGER IDENTITY PROMINENCE AND BOUNDARY-SPANNING BEHAVIORS

Managers occupy a unique position where they are connected to individuals and networks outside the team, while also having oversight over the work of all other

individuals within the team. Although they are favorably situated to play the role of boundary spanners, I argue that manager identity prominence increases their propensity to focus on such behaviors. Prior research has examined the wide variety of activities of boundary spanners in general (Ancona and Caldwell, 1988; 1992a; 1992b), and of leaders of teams in particular (Ancona, 1990; Benoliel & Somech, 2015; Druskat & Wheeler, 2003). Ancona and Caldwell (1992a) suggested that managers acted as boundary spanners between their team and the broader organizational network, thus facilitating transfer of information across these boundaries, and ensuring smooth implementation of strategy, exchange of resources, and enabling coordination between their teams and external stakeholders. They engage in activities such as publicizing their team's accomplishments, and in articulating their needs and issues such that they obtain support from their superiors or their external networks for their team.

As with decisional behaviors, managers have some discretion with regard to the manner in which they engage in boundary spanning. They face a boundary-role conflict or dilemma between optimizing and maximizing their group's position in the organization (Holmes, Ellard, & Lamm, 1986). By optimizing, they could be more inclusive, and cooperative, and facilitate coordination between their team and other stakeholders in the organization. They could also be maximizing, by being restrictive and self-serving in engaging with external partners (e.g. managers of other teams in the organization) while being protective of their own team. I argue that manager identity prominence could lead to managers working to ensure a smooth coordination between the various entities that afford them their manager identity, i.e. their subordinates and the other stakeholders in their organization, and therefore engage in behaviors that ensure that their team is recognized in the broader organization. On the other hand, manager identity prominence could also lead to a high necessity to control the external

environment and protect the more proximal entities that are directly complementary to their manager identity (i.e. their subordinates) and therefore engage in aggressive resource hoarding behaviors to benefit their own team at the expense of others. I explain these relationships here in detail.

Representation. Representation deals with protecting the team from external shocks, presenting and advocating for the teams' ideas to external stakeholders, articulating the needs of the team, and obtaining resources from external networks (see Marrone, 2010 for a detailed review of boundary spanning activities). Representation pertains to positioning the team within the broader organizational network and facilitating coordination between the team and the rest of the organization. Research has demonstrated that interdependence and access to external networks make individuals more likely to engage in representation outside the team (Ancona, 1990; Ancona and Caldwell, 1992a; 1992b; Benoliel & Somech, 2015; Marrone, Tesluk, & Carson, 2007).

Manager identity prominence could lead to representation behaviors. Identity prominence is associated with the need to manage the external task environment to be able to engage in behaviors associated with prominent identities (McCall & Simmons, 1978). Given the manager is uniquely situated at the boundary of the team with the rest of the organization, a prominent manager identity is likely to make them focus on coordination behaviors, which include representing their team to the external stakeholders, and advocating their teams' ideas in securing support from the rest of the organization. Those higher on manager identity prominence are likely to feel loyalty to their organizations for conferring them their managerial role. Therefore, they feel obliged to align their teams' objectives to the overall organizational mission. They act to make

sure that their teams function efficiently without wasting organizational resources and cooperate with their superiors and other teams to achieve organizational goals.

Competition. Managers' boundary spanning behaviors in the external network could also be manifest as aggressive and self-serving competition, where managers accumulate and hoard resources for their own team at the expense of other teams or broader organizational goals. Druskat and Wheeler (2003) suggested that managers engaged in boundary spanning activities with the aim of having influence within and outside the team. Research on self-serving behaviors by team leaders is nascent, and is primarily focused on how leaders are likely to put themselves before their team (Rus et al., 2010). Competitive boundary spanning refers to when managers put their teams' interests ahead of that of the organization. They seek more credit and disproportionately higher access to resources for their own teams, and are quick to transfer blame for coordination failures to other teams even if their own team was partly responsible. They could engage in more competitive negotiations with their superiors for resources, rather than seek out integrative solutions keeping in mind superordinate organizational goals (Brown & Robinson, 2007). Such behaviors may benefit the managers' own teams, but often at the detriment to the organizations' superordinate goals or to other teams or entities in the organization.

The need to exert influence in their immediate environments could be a direct consequence of a prominent manager identity. As a result, individuals may engage in competitive boundary spanning behaviors when their manager identities are prominent. Individuals high on manager identity prominence could combine the urge to safeguard and enrich the entities associated with their manager identity (James, 1923), with the need to control the external environment for the enactment of their identity (Stets &

Burke, 2000). The prominence of the manager identity is most closely tied to the individual's interactions with counter-roles (Laing, 1961), i.e. their subordinates in their team. Owing to the complementarity of the manager-subordinate relationship, individuals who prioritize their manager identity are apt to include their team (the group of individuals reporting to them) as an integral aspect of their self-definition as a manager. Thus, even when these managers interact with their superiors and their other peers from other teams in their organization, they constantly seek opportunities to exert pressure over external stakeholders such that their own team members, and their goals, needs, and accomplishments are enriched, even if at the expense of others. Individuals high on manager identity prominence are likely to negotiate for resources for their team, or fight for more promotions for their team members compared to those belonging to other teams.

Interaction with prosocial motivation

Managers are ideally situated to work towards acquiring resources that would help them achieve the goals of the work unit. Prosocial motivation has been shown to be associated with a sense of obligation towards beneficiaries. Therefore, individuals high on prosocial motivation are likely to view negotiations for resources in the organizational network as a more integrative rather than distributive process (Beersma & De Dreu, 2002). However, I argue that high manager identity prominence leads to a preferentially felt obligation towards their subordinates and their teams. A prominent identity makes salient the entities directly associated with that identity. Therefore, those with a prominent manager identity are likely to feel more obligated towards their more proximal entities, i.e. their subordinates rather than towards external stakeholders. Thus, they are likely to engage in resource hoarding for the benefit of their own teams even if at the expense of other units and the organization. Recent evidence that highly prosocial

individuals feel more depleted from excessive prosocial behavior towards multiple constituencies (Lanaj, Johnson, & Wang, 2016) also suggests that individuals with prominent manager identities may feel the necessity to focus their efforts towards their immediate constituencies. Therefore, I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 5: Prosocial motivation moderates the relationship between manager identity prominence and boundary spanning behaviors, such that manager identity prominence is negatively associated with inclusive boundary spanning behaviors (representation) when managers' prosocial motivation is higher.

Hypothesis 6: Prosocial motivation moderates the relationship between manager identity prominence and boundary spanning behaviors, such that manager identity prominence is positively associated with restrictive boundary spanning behaviors (competition) when managers' prosocial motivation is higher.

Interaction with social dominance orientation.

Although social dominance orientation is likely to be a more relevant factor when working across hierarchical levels, it is likely to affect the relationship between manager identity prominence and boundary-spanning behaviors for two reasons. First, when social dominance orientation is high, individuals are less likely to support equality and compromise for the sake of a greater good (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). I argue that for such individuals, a prominent manager identity makes them less likely to think of the higher level organizational goals and less likely to compromise their position and that of their own teams relative to other teams in the organization. Therefore, when social dominance orientation is higher, manager identity prominence is less likely to bring about representation behaviors. Second, the effects of social dominance orientation are likely to

spill-over into interactions that are not strictly across hierarchical levels due to the importance attributed to occupying the position rather than to personal relationships stemming from organizational membership. Therefore, those with higher manager identity prominence not only perceive the legitimacy to dominate over their subordinates, but also deem it acceptable to be aggressive in dealing with stakeholders outside their team. They are likely to feel comfortable using their managerial position to engage in self-serving behaviors and in actions that disproportionately benefit their own team at the expense of others. Thus, they are likely to engage more in competitive behaviors.

Hypothesis 7: Social dominance orientation moderates the relationship between manager identity prominence and boundary spanning behaviors, such that manager identity prominence is negatively associated with inclusive boundary spanning behaviors (representation) when managers' social dominance orientation is higher.

Hypothesis 8: Social dominance orientation moderates the relationship between manager identity prominence and boundary spanning behaviors, such that manager identity prominence is positively associated with restrictive boundary spanning behaviors (competition) when managers' social dominance orientation is higher.

INFLUENCE OF CONTEXT: MANAGERIAL DISCRETION

Managerial discretion is defined as an individual's "ability to affect important organizational outcomes" (Carpenter & Golden, 1997). It is the freedom of action and decision-making available for managers (Caza, 2011). Managerial discretion is a reflection of the environment in which the organization, or the work unit, operates. Whereas high discretion contexts allow managers to shape the outcomes of the work unit, in low discretion contexts, work units are more a reflection of the contexts themselves

rather than of the managers' characteristics or decisions (Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1990; Finkelstein & Boyd, 1998; Hambrick & Abrahamson, 1995). Research on upper echelons—CEOs and top managers (Hambrick & Mason, 1984)—has shown that higher managerial discretion moderates the relationships between top managers' strategic intentions and organizational outcomes. Discretion strengthens the ability of top managers to engage in strategic change (Quigley & Hambrick, 2012), and risk-taking (Makhija & Stewart, 2002; Miller, Kets de Vries, & Toulouse, 1982), and makes them less likely to commit to status quo (Hambrick, Geletkanycz, & Fredrickson, 1993; McClelland, Liang, & Barker, 2010). Several factors may influence discretion of managers within organizations such as organizational size, product portfolio, availability of resources, historical factors, etc. (see Wangrow, Schepker, & Barker, 2014 for a review). Perceptions of discretion could also vary across individuals depending on characteristics such as locus of control (Carpenter & Golden, 1997) and their perceptions of the environment (Child, 1997).

Most research on managerial discretion has focused on the top manager, country heads, or heads of business units, the concept of discretion is also applicable for middle and lower level managers as well, although research in this area is still nascent (Wangrow, Schepker, & Barker, 2014). Caza (2011) showed that although managerial discretion of middle managers did not have a direct effect on unit performance, units under more experienced managers benefited from higher levels of discretion. Recent scholars have demonstrated that managers are likely to exploit organizational resources better (Yan, Chong, & Mak, 2010), and engage in improvement-oriented behaviors (Kuratko, Ireland, Covin, & Hornsby, 2005) when they have higher levels of discretion.

The fundamental basis of my predictions regarding the interaction between manager identity prominence and managerial discretion stems from the constraints around the ability of managers to act. Ashforth and Saks (2000) suggested that individuals may not desire control stemming from a role “if they do not possess the resources to wield it” (Ashforth, 2001, p. 68). Thus, I argue that managerial discretion strengthens the relationships between manager identity prominence and managers’ autonomy and territoriality in managerial behaviors. Managerial discretion is likely to make managers feel that they are in charge, and that they possess the resources to make decisions without necessarily consenting with others. In such contexts, manager identity prominence is likely to make managers seek to maintain control over making decisions, rather than share such authority with their subordinates. Furthermore, due to their urge to bring about change to their environments, high managerial discretion contexts provide those higher on manager identity prominence with clear and rigid expectations about how work is to be done in their teams. These managers are likely to become more territorial and prevent input from others about how they carry out the team’s tasks, thereby resulting in higher micromanagement.

On the other hand, those with lower manager identity prominence feel less territorial even in high discretion contexts. Research also suggests that role identification provides individuals with the motivation to exert control over their environment (Ashforth, 2001; Ashforth & Saks, 2000; McCall & Simmons, 1978). Although the context empowers managers with adequate resources, their weak manager identity prominence does not motivate them to use such power. As high discretion contexts empower managers (and by extension, their teams) to make decisions, the decision-making authority descends past the managers with lower manager identity prominence, and rests with their subordinates, thereby increasing delegation. Such managers are also

less likely to be rigid about the way work gets accomplished, and are therefore less likely to engage in micromanagement. In contrast, low discretion contexts offer lower decision autonomy and less strategic choices to managers in general, and by extension to their teams of subordinates. Therefore, low discretion contexts lead to less decision-making power being afforded to subordinates, irrespective of manager identity prominence. Thus, I propose that managerial discretion moderates the relationship between manager identity prominence and decisional behaviors, such that in higher discretion environments, manager identity prominence is associated with less delegation and more micromanagement, but that these relationships will not hold in low managerial discretion contexts.

Hypothesis 9: Managerial discretion moderates the relationship between manager identity prominence and decisional behaviors, such that manager identity prominence is negatively associated with inclusive decisional behaviors (delegation) only in contexts with higher managerial discretion.

Hypothesis 10: Managerial discretion moderates the relationship between manager identity prominence and decisional behaviors, such that manager identity prominence is positively associated with restrictive decisional behaviors (micromanagement) only in contexts with higher managerial discretion.

A similar interaction can be expected for managerial behaviors external to the team, where those with higher manager identity prominence are more likely to exert influence and access resources in contexts of higher managerial discretion (Yan et al., 2010). In such contexts, given the autonomy that managers enjoy in such settings, those with higher manager identity prominence feel less obliged to align the strategies of their teams with the broader organizational agenda. Manager identity prominence motivates

individuals to exert control over the external environment, and their ability to do so is enhanced in contexts where managerial discretion is higher (Ashforth, 2001; Ashforth & Saks, 2000). They are able to exercise strategic choices more readily and execute changes that they envisage in their work units without concern for other resource constraints or for other units. Therefore, in such contexts, manager identity prominence is likely to make managers less inclusive and more restrictive. The reverse is true of contexts with lower managerial discretion. In such contexts, while manager identity prominence motivates managers to engage in boundary-spanning behaviors to accomplish their agenda, they are likely to be forced to work within constraints and align their team with the broader organizational goals. Thus, in lower discretion contexts, they are more likely to engage in representation behaviors.

Hypothesis 11: Managerial discretion moderates the relationship between manager identity prominence and boundary spanning behaviors, such that manager identity prominence is positively associated with inclusive boundary spanning behaviors (representation) only in contexts with lower managerial discretion.

Hypothesis 12: Managerial discretion moderates the relationship between manager identity prominence and boundary spanning behaviors, such that manager identity prominence is positively associated with restrictive boundary spanning behaviors (competition) only in contexts with higher managerial discretion.

The overall conceptual model is shown in Figure 1.

Chapter 4: Studies on Manager Identity Prominence

As no survey measure exists for manager identity prominence, I first conducted a measure development exercise to develop and validate an item-based measure for manager identity prominence. To test my hypotheses, I conducted two survey-based studies on managers working in organizations in the United States.

MEASURE DEVELOPMENT STUDY

In the first step in a three-step procedure, I collected expert rating on my construct items for manager identity prominence as well as for the related constructs of identity salience, identity centrality, and role identification. In Step 2, I collected data from managers working across organizations in the United States (as a sample representative of the respondents for my future studies) to establish convergent and discriminant validity for the construct of manager identity prominence using exploratory factor analyses. In Step 3, I conducted confirmatory factor analyses on the quasi-field study data collected for hypotheses tests (Study 1 sample), to generalize the factor structure identified in Step 2.

Before describing the three-step procedure, I first provide a justification for treating manager identity prominence, manager identity centrality, and manager identity salience as distinct constructs, and developing a measure for manager identity prominence, rather than using an existing measure of centrality or using the three constructs together as one meta-construct comprising three sub-facets. The rationale for using manager identity prominence, manager identity centrality, and manager identity salience, as three distinct constructs is that the three constructs each capture the core idea of representativeness of the manager identity, albeit from different perspectives. An

alternative would appear to be to use centrality, prominence, and salience as three parts of a single meta-construct of manager identity *significance*, as with meta-constructs such as transactive memory systems or trustworthiness. Transactive memory systems is comprised of three sub-facets of credibility, expertise and coordination (Lewis, 2003), and trustworthiness is comprised of three sub-facets of ability, benevolence, and integrity (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). However, this usage of manager identity significance as a meta-construct is not feasible. Unlike the other constructs described above, prominence, centrality and salience are not sub-facets that can be aggregated to represent identity significance. Rather as described in the preceding sections, they are different representations of the concept. Whereas a high score on all three facets is necessary for a team to reap the benefits of transactive memory systems, identity significance could be high as long as even one of prominence, centrality, or salience is high.

Centrality examines the identity in relation to the overall sense of self (both within and outside the organization). Given that a validated measure of centrality existed (Pope and Hall, 2014), I adapted these items to capture manager identity centrality, and developed measures for salience and prominence based on their definitions. *Prominence* is also temporally present as is centrality, but goes beyond in capturing a potentially more futuristic ideal self. It examines the identity situated in a hierarchy of all work-related identities, and also assumes self-awareness. The key difference between prominence and centrality and salience is that prominence examines how the focal identity compares with other identities. Centrality captures the absolute importance of the focal identity to the self. Therefore, the existing measure of centrality could not be used to accurately represent prominence. Thus, the items for prominence were constructed with the purpose of capturing the comparative and superlative nature of the manager identity in the ideal

self. *Salience* is different from both centrality and prominence in that it is more temporally past and present, realistic rather than idealistic, and does not assume self-awareness during invocation. In other words, this identity could be invoked without a conscious effort on the part of the individual. As a survey-based measure for salience also did not exist, the items of salience were constructed with the purpose of capturing reflection about the manager identity in the immediate past and the present.

Step 1: Expert Evaluation Study

Objective. The objective of the expert evaluation exercise was to develop a set of items that would accurately capture the definition of manager identity prominence and distinguish it from related constructs such as centrality and salience. The study was conducted using the deductive method of measure development based on recommendations from prior research for measure development of a theoretically well-defined construct (Hinkin, 1998, Brown, Treviño, & Harrison, 2005).

Procedure. As a preliminary step in the process, I developed a set of 36 items to capture manager identity prominence and salience based on definitions and existing scales used in prior research (see Appendix 2 for the full list of items). Based on discussions with two expert scholars in the field of identity, I narrowed down the items to a set of six items capturing prominence, and six capturing salience, for the purpose of the expert evaluation study. An example item for manager identity prominence was: “At work, I prefer to think of myself more as a manager than as a member of a team”. An example item for manager identity salience was: “I find myself thinking like a manager across work situations”. I then conducted an expert rating investigation where a panel of 20 experts (researchers including faculty members and doctoral students in the areas of

organizational behavior, strategic management, and social psychology) rated these 12 items along with 12 other items based on validated measures of manager identity centrality (adapted from Callero, 1985 and Pope and Hall, 2014) and manager role identification (adapted from Mael and Ashforth, 1992). As recommended by Brown et al. (2005), I added one additional item to the five items on centrality to make it six items, such that the probability of every item being selected to represent a construct was equal. An example item for manager identity centrality was: “The manager role is a big part of my life”. An example item for manager role identification was: “When someone praises managers, it feels like a personal compliment”. Experts rated each of the items on the extent to which they were representative of each of the four constructs on a scale of 1 to 7, where 1 = highly unlikely and 7 = highly likely.

Results. Results are shown in Table 1. Representativeness scores for each item were compared between the construct the item was meant to represent and the other three constructs. Representativeness scores for the prominence items were high ($ARS_{PROM} = 5.38$, $SD = .60$), suggesting that the items accurately represented the construct of manager identity prominence. However, it appeared that the superlative aspect in some of the items made it too similar to the definition of centrality. As a result, the mean representativeness scores for these items were comparable with or higher for centrality—i.e. they either represented both prominence and centrality ($ARS_{CENT} = 5.40$, $SD = .61$, p -values ranging from 0 to .65). Thus, these superlative items were reworded to reflect a comparison with other work-related identities. For example, the item “Being a manager is the most significant aspect of my ideal work identity” was reworded to “Being a manager is a more significant aspect of who I am at work than being a member of my profession”.

Representativeness scores for the salience items were significantly higher for salience than for the other three constructs ($ARS_{SAL} = 6.22$, $SD = .38$). Only one item which used the words “top of mind” to denote a readiness of invocation was likely misconstrued to represent “top of the identity hierarchy”. This item was hence reworded as “More often than not, my managerial role influences how I see most situations” to make it more indicative of readiness of invocation. The centrality items appeared highly representative of centrality (average representativeness score (ARS_{CENT}) = 5.59, $SD = .22$), although their mean representativeness of role identification was not significantly lower ($ARS_{ROLEID} = 5.13$, $SD = .38$, p-values ranging from .16 to .77). This was expected because centrality and identification are similar constructs as mentioned earlier. The final list of items for manager identity prominence are shown in Appendix 3. These items were then used in the subsequent studies to measure manager identity prominence.

Step 2: Study to establish Construct Validity

Objective. Following the expert evaluation study, I conducted a survey study to establish face validity of the manager identity prominence construct with intended target respondents of managers for my further studies. The objectives of this study included establishing convergent and discriminant validity of the construct of manager identity prominence with related constructs. Convergent validity refers to the extent to which the indicators of the focal construct (manager identity prominence) correlate with each other and with other constructs that it should be theoretically related to (centrality, salience, and identification) (Cunningham, Preacher, & Banaji, 2001). Discriminant validity refers to the extent to which the indicators of the focal construct (manager identity prominence) are distinguishable or unrelated to constructs that are theoretically different (centrality, salience, and identification, as well as from managerial self-efficacy, team identification,

organizational identification, etc.) (Brown et al., 2005). Although the results from the measure development expert evaluation study are consistent with the items being representative of the respective constructs, it is likely that identity centrality, prominence, and salience are not distinguishable in a factor analysis, or are not distinctive enough to separate out as three distinct factors. Owing to their significant theoretical overlap, the three constructs are still likely to be highly correlated with each other (Stryker and Serpe, 1994).

Procedure. I conducted a survey study on managers working across the United States in organizations across various fields. Respondents were recruited through the Amazon Mechanical Turk platform. Several checks were put in place to ensure that the respondents were indeed managers and had at least one subordinate reporting directly to them. Managers were asked to rate the extent to which they agree that the items are representative of them at work using an agreement scale (1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Somewhat disagree; 4 = Neither agree nor disagree; 5 = Somewhat agree; 6 = Agree; 7 = Strongly agree). I measured manager identity prominence using the developed items and used the same items used in the expert evaluation study to measure salience (developed items), centrality (Callero, 1985; Pope & Hall, 2014) and role identification (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). The final sample comprised of 177 managers (mean age = 37 years; 36% male; median team size = 8 subordinates).

Results. I first examined reliabilities and bivariate correlations between the constructs. Manager identity prominence showed high Cronbach's alpha of .91, suggesting good construct validity. Bivariate correlations from this study are shown in Table 2a. Manager identity prominence was correlated positively to manager identity centrality ($r = .39$, $p = .00$), manager identity salience ($r = .47$, $p = .00$), and to manager

role identification ($r = .33$, $p = .00$). While the positive correlations suggest strong convergent validity, the range of coefficient values between .20 and .50 suggest that the constructs are still distinguishable. The maximum shared variance explained between two constructs, manager identity prominence and manager identity salience ($r = .47$), was still less than 25% ($r^2 = .22$). To further strengthen convergent validity and to establish discriminant validity, I conducted exploratory factor analysis using the principal axis factoring method allowing for Promax rotation (Gorsuch, 1983). Since prominence, salience, centrality, and identification were positively correlated, it was essential to use an oblique rotation method such as Promax, which does not require the factors to be orthogonal (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCullum, & Strahan, 1999). The factor analysis suggested a clear factor structure with the items representing the same construct loading on to the same factor, and not cross-loading on to other factors. Results of the factor analysis are shown in Table 2b.

To check for robustness, I conducted additional factor analyses by specifying three and five factors to check for under- and over-factoring. As expected, the three-factor specification led to under-factoring with prominence and salience items loading on a single factor, but with heavy cross-loading on other factors. As expected, the five-factor specification led to the generation of a spurious fifth factor with loadings of .45 or lower. This showed that the four-factor specification was the better fit. Having developed and validated the items for manager identity prominence, I used these six items to measure manager identity prominence in the subsequent studies.

Step 3: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Objective. The sample from Study 1 was used to establish that the factor structure observed in the earlier study was generalizable to the population. This was done by conducting a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) on the data collected for Study 1 on 304 managers working across organizations in the United States. Other sample characteristics are described in the following chapter.

Procedure. I conducted a survey study using similar measures of manager identity prominence, centrality, and salience. In addition to these items, I included an 8-item measure for self-efficacy in the managerial role adapted from Fast et al., (2014), to establish discriminant validity from the related yet dissimilar construct of managerial self-efficacy. I conducted the CFA based on maximum likelihood in R using the lavaan package. I tested four models, two under-specified models, the expected model, and one over-specified model. The objective of the CFA was to ensure that the expected model had significantly better fit than the under-specified models, and that the over-specified model did not have a significantly better fit than the expected model. The under-specified models had three factors.

Model 1 combined manager identity prominence with manager identity centrality as the first factor, with manager identity salience and managerial self-efficacy as the remaining separate two factors. Model 2 combined manager identity prominence with manager identity salience, with manager identity centrality and managerial self-efficacy as separate factors. The expected model (Model 3) had four factors—manager identity prominence, manager identity centrality, manager identity salience, and managerial self-efficacy. The over-specified model (Model 4) created a deliberate split among the manager identity prominence items such that the items that contrasted manager identity

with other group affiliations (organization, team, department, and profession) were specified as the first factor, and the items that contrasted manager identity with other individual designations (individual employee and individual contributor) were grouped as the second factor. Manager identity centrality, manager identity salience, and managerial self-efficacy formed three separate factors.

Results. Results of the CFA are shown in Table 3. Results show that the expected model (Model 3) had a significantly better fit than the underspecified models, Model 1 (Δ Chi-squared = 1111.00, $p < .001$) and Model 2 (Δ Chi-squared = 963.44, $p < .001$). The over-specified model (Model 4) did not significantly improve upon Model 3 (Δ Chi-squared = 5.61, $p = .06$), suggesting that Model 3 had the best fit. This confirmed that items measuring manager identity prominence correlated well together, represented the construct with reasonable accuracy, and were discriminant from other related constructs of manager identity centrality, manager identity salience, and managerial self-efficacy.

STUDY 1: MANAGER PANEL STUDY

I conducted two studies on the effects of manager identity prominence on managerial behaviors. As my theory, research questions, and hypotheses concern individuals occupying managerial positions, the respondents in both studies were managerial role occupants in organizations to ensure that the samples matched the context that the theory can be applied to. This is in line with McGrath, Martin, and Kulka's (1982) recommendation that contextual realism of the data collection is one of the requirements for generalizability of the findings. In Study 1, I tested the interactions between manager identity prominence and personal beliefs of prosocial motivation and social dominance orientation on managerial behaviors.

Method

In this first study, I collected data from an online panel of managers working in organizations across the United States, recruited for the purpose of the study by the Qualtrics online panel service provider. Three hundred and four managers working in organizations across the United States were recruited for Study 1 through multiple online panels. The criteria for selecting respondents was that they directly supervised at least one employee. These respondents were aged between 25 to 55 years (Mean age = 36.17 years, S.D. = 8.33 years) and had a minimum education level of a diploma. The respondents were provided a nominal fee of \$6~8 (depending on the base rate for the corresponding panel service provider) for responding to the survey completely. Eighty percent (245) of the respondents was female. The number of direct reports for the managers ranged from 1 to 7 with the median number being 3. Managers hailed from several industries including banking, construction, education, government, healthcare, IT, manufacturing, and retail.

I collected data on independent variables, individual moderators, and a self-report of dependent variables. To keep possible participant fatigue in check, it was necessary to use adapted version of scales. Therefore, for scales with more than 10 items, I reviewed the original paper that introduced and validated the scale, inspected the factor loadings of the items, and shortlisted items with loadings greater than .50 and those with a cross-loading of less than .25 with other factors. I then examined the face validity of the items to ensure that they appropriately captured the construct and are applicable to my specific context before using a shortened scale.

Independent variables. The main independent variable *manager identity prominence* was measured using the items developed in the measure development expert

evaluation. Managers will be asked to rate the extent to which they agree that the items are representative of who they are at work. For the purpose of conducting factor analyses to establish discriminant validity, I collected data on *manager identity centrality* using items from Callero (1985) and Pope and Hall (2014). An example item was: “The manager role is a big part of my life”. I also measured *managerial self-efficacy* with items from Fast et al., (2014). An example item was “I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself”.

Moderators. *Prosocial motivation* was measured using four items from Grant (2008) with the stem “Why are you motivated to do your work?” and items such as “Because I want to have a positive impact on others”. I used Sidanius et al.’s (1996) scale to measure *social dominance orientation*, which includes items such as “Superior groups should dominate inferior groups”.

Dependent variables. Managerial behaviors were measured as a self-reported response on the extent to which the managers agreed with engaging in the behaviors of interest. *Delegation*, the inclusive internal decisional behavior, was measured using items from Schriesheim, Neider, and Scandura (1998), an example of which is: “I let subordinates make decisions by themselves, without consulting me”. *Micromanagement*, the restrictive internal decisional behavior, was measured using the measure for implicit voice theories (Detert & Edmondson, 2011), which accurately captured the extent to which managers controlled voice or ideas for improvement from their subordinates. An example item for micromanagement was “I take it personally when subordinates question procedures developed by me.” *Representation*, the inclusive external boundary-spanning behavior, was measured using items from Borman and Brush (1993) and Ancona and Caldwell (1992a). An example item is the extent to which managers agreed that they

acted “as a representative of the team with other teams of the organization.” Finally, *competition*, the restrictive external boundary-spanning behavior, was measured using an adaptation of self-serving behaviors from Rus, van Knippenberg, and Wisse (2010), an example item of which was “I have taken more credit for my own team, instead of giving appropriate credit to other work units or individuals for jobs requiring a lot of time and effort.”

Control variables. I collected data on managers’ demographics (age, sex, race, education level, etc.), their tenure (in the organization, as a manager, etc.), hierarchical level, industry. Managers also responded about their *managerial self-efficacy* (i.e. self-efficacy in the managerial role) with items from Fast et al., (2014). The measure asked respondents the extent to which they agreed with items as they related specifically to their role as a manager. An example item was: “I believe I can succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind”.

Results

Correlations and descriptive statistics from Study 1 are shown in Table 4. Manager identity prominence was positively correlated with delegation, micromanagement, and competitive boundary spanning behaviors, but not to representation. Controlling for age, sex, tenure as a manager, and managerial self-efficacy, manager identity prominence was not positively related to delegation ($b = .07$, $S.E. = .05$, n.s.) and representation ($b = -.043$, $S.E. = .041$, n.s.), but was significantly positively related to micromanagement ($b = .20$, $S.E. = .06$, $p < .01$) and to competition ($b = .14$, $S.E. = .05$, $p < .01$). Thus, a prominent manager identity related positively to intentions to manage decision processes in their teams and resources in the external

network, but that managers were more likely to engage in these behaviors in a restrictive rather than an inclusive manner.

Decisional behaviors. Hypotheses 1 and 2 suggest that prosocial motivation moderates the relationship between manager identity prominence and decisional behaviors within their teams. Table 5 shows the regression results for the interactions between manager identity prominence, and prosocial motivation and social dominance orientation, and managers' decisional behaviors, internal to the team. Prosocial motivation interacted with manager identity prominence to affect delegation behaviors ($b = .08$, $S.E. = .04$, $p < .05$), thereby supporting Hypothesis 1. I further conducted Aiken and West's (1991) simple slopes test by examining the effect of manager identity prominence on delegation at low (one standard deviation below zero) and high (1 S.D. above zero) prosocial motivation as recommended by and Preacher, Curran, and Bauer (2006). The simple slopes test demonstrated that manager identity prominence had a significant positive relationship with delegation when prosocial motivation was one standard deviation higher than the mean ($b = .20$, $S.E. = .06$, $p < .01$), but that the effect was not significant when prosocial motivation was 1 S.D. below the mean ($b = -.04$, $S.E. = .08$, $n.s.$). This suggested that the more prosocially motivated managers were, the more a prominent manager identity oriented them towards helping their subordinates and providing them opportunities to take part in team-level decision-making. The interaction plot (Figure 2) corroborated these findings and suggested that it required a combination of high prosocial motivation and high manager identity prominence for managers to be good delegators. The interaction term was not significant for micromanagement ($b = -.08$, $S.E. = .05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Hypotheses 3 and 4 pertain to the effect of the interaction of manager identity prominence and social dominance orientation on delegation and micromanagement. The interaction on delegation was not significant ($b = .02$, $S.E. = .03$, n.s.), thereby not lending support to Hypotheses 3. The effect of the interaction on micromanagement was not significant ($b = .06$, $S.E. = .04$). However, as shown in Figure 3, the interaction plot and simple slopes test suggested that manager identity prominence had a significant positive relationship with micromanagement when social dominance orientation was one standard deviation higher than the mean ($b = .28$, $S.E. = .09$, $p < .01$), but that the effect was not significant when social dominance orientation was 1 S.D. below the mean ($b = .12$, $S.E. = .10$, n.s.), thereby lending support to Hypothesis 4.⁴ This suggested that the higher the managers' social dominance orientation, the more a prominent manager identity oriented them towards preventing their subordinates from speaking up with improvement-oriented input.

Boundary-spanning behaviors. Table 6 shows the regression results for the interactions between manager identity prominence and individual moderators on managers' boundary spanning behaviors external to the team. Hypothesis 5, which pertained to the interaction between manager identity prominence and prosocial motivation on representation behaviors, was not supported ($b = -.03$, $S.E. = .04$). Hypothesis 6 was supported. The interaction between prosocial motivation and manager identity prominence was significantly related to competition behaviors ($b = .10$, $S.E. = .04$, $p < .05$). The simple slopes test demonstrated that manager identity prominence was

⁴ This is in accordance with recent studies published in the *Academy of Management Journal* and *Journal of Applied Psychology* (Dineen, Lewicki, and Tomlinson, 2006; Leana, Appelbaum, & Shevchuk, 2009; Shaw et al., 2011), where the significance of one of the slopes in the simple slopes test at the $p < .05$ level was sufficient to conclude that the interaction hypothesis was supported, even in cases where the regression coefficient of the interaction term itself was not significant.

positively related to competition when prosocial motivation was high ($b = .36$, $S.E. = .07$, $p < .01$), but not related when prosocial motivation was low ($b = .00$, $S.E. = .08$). The more prosocially motivated managers were, the more a prominent manager identity oriented them towards competing with external stakeholders to accumulate resources and credit for their own team, even if that came at the expense of the rest of their organization. The interaction plot (Figure 4) showed that managers were generally competitive unless they were both highly prosocially motivated and did not have a prominent manager identity.

Hypotheses 7 and 8 suggested that manager identity prominence would positively relate to inclusive or restrictive boundary-spanning depending on managers' social dominance orientations. The interaction between manager identity prominence and social dominance orientation did not have a significant effect on representation behaviors ($b = -.00$, $S.E. = .03$), thereby not lending support to Hypotheses 7. Although the effect of the interaction on competition was not significant ($b = .04$, $S.E. = .03$, $n.s.$), the simple slopes test suggested that manager identity prominence had a significant positive relationship with competition when social dominance orientation was one standard deviation higher than the mean ($b = .22$, $S.E. = .06$, $p < .01$), but that the effect was not significant when social dominance orientation was 1 S.D. below the mean ($b = .08$, $S.E. = .08$, $n.s.$), thereby supporting Hypothesis 8. This suggested that when managers' social dominance orientation was higher, manager identity prominence oriented them towards engaging in aggressive competition in the external network. The interaction plot (Figure 5) showed that individuals higher on both manager identity prominence as well as social dominance orientation made for the most competitive managers.

Discussion

In this study, I demonstrate how a prominent manager identity is associated with managers' decisional and boundary spanning behaviors. The results suggest direct positive relationships for manager identity prominence with both inclusive and restrictive decisional behaviors, and restrictive boundary spanning behaviors. Consistent with predictions from prior literature, the results support the assertion that a prominent identity is likely to be associated with higher levels of support for complementary entities associated with the prominent identity, and exertion of control over the immediate external environment (Ashforth, 2001; McCall & Simmons, 1978).

Prosocially motivated managers with higher manager identity prominence were more likely to be inclusive in their behaviors within their teams, but restrictive in their behaviors across team boundaries. This indicates that individuals could be selectively prosocial towards some beneficiaries and not others (Grant, 2009). The prominence of the manager identity is likely to create a sense of ownership and responsibility over their team and the subordinates associated with the role of the manager. This is likely to result in favorable behaviors towards the subordinates, and potentially unfavorable behaviors towards others. While prior research has suggested that the awareness and proximity of beneficiaries resulted in higher prosocial motivation (Grant, 2012; Loewenstein & Small, 2007), the results from Study 1 suggest that the individual's own prioritization of a particular identity could be associated with the relative salience of certain beneficiaries associated with that identity.

There was a significant positive correlation between micromanagement and manager identity prominence, suggesting that managers are inherently likely to develop a sense of control and therefore engage in micromanagement. The interaction analyses

suggested that social dominance orientation could be a trigger for those high on manager identity prominence to engage in restrictive behaviors. This suggests that although a prominent manager identity makes individuals feel a sense of legitimacy and control stemming from occupying the position, social dominance orientation makes them more likely to use such position-based legitimacy to restrict input and monitor the work of their subordinates more closely (Detert & Edmonson, 2011; George & Zhou, 2001).

Representation was significantly positively correlated with prosocial motivation, but was not correlated with manager identity prominence and not affected by the interaction between the two factors. This suggests that the positive relationship between prosocial motivation and representation behaviors overwhelmed the effects of manager identity prominence. However, this also suggests that individuals high on manager identity prominence may not necessarily assume the responsibility of positioning their team in the broader organizational context, and may need to possess other attitudes such as a strong organizational identification to make them better advocates for their teams and subordinates. Taken together, these findings suggest that an investigation into other individual and contextual factors such as trust in subordinates, leader-member exchange, or team competence is therefore necessary to examine how the positive relationship between manager identity prominence and delegation and representation behaviors can be enhanced.

While the findings from Study 1 provide support for some of the hypotheses, and make contributions to theory and practice, it was not without limitations. Since Study 1 was cross-sectional and was based on single source data, it was subject to high common method variance. However, while common method variance could explain high positive correlations between manager identity prominence and some of the behavioral outcomes,

the results are also robust to the possible deflation to interaction effects as suggested by Siemsen, Roth, and Oliviera, (2010). A further limitation pertained to the low average value of manager identity prominence (3.30 on a scale of 1 to 7) and the lack of a positive correlation between manager identity prominence and managerial tenure ($r = .06$, n.s.), suggesting that even those with several years of experience as managers had relatively lower values of manager identity prominence. Therefore, while Study 1 helped establish the face validity of the manager identity prominence construct by examining the relationship with self-reported managerial behaviors, Study 2 would address the common-source limitation and examine relationships with managerial effectiveness by obtaining ratings of managerial behavior and performance from subordinates and superiors.

STUDY 2: FIELD STUDY

The purpose of Study 2 was to address the concern that Study 1 was collected using single source data. Study 2 was a field study conducted at a large educational institution in Southern United States, with data being collected from multiple sources—managers, their subordinates, and their superiors. I tested the Hypotheses examined in Study 1 in Study 2 by examining the joint effects of manager identity prominence and individual (prosocial motivation and social dominance orientation) and contextual (managerial discretion) moderators on managerial behaviors. I also examine the effect of manager identity prominence on overall managerial performance evaluations by their superiors and subordinates.

Method

The criteria for recruiting respondents as managers was that they directly supervised at least two employees. Managers responded to questions about their personal characteristics, identity, and beliefs. I administered separate surveys for their superiors, and subordinates where they were asked to rate the behaviors of managers. Respondents had a minimum education level of a diploma, and represented 19 occupational categories according to the Standard Occupational Classification (SOC) system in the United States. The final sample of 482 managers worked in different departments such as anthropology, business, engineering, linguistics, psychology, surgery, and sociology, in functions such as administration, HR, finance, budgeting, communications, IT, transportation, and other services. Managers in this sample were older and more experienced than in Study 1, aged between 26 to 75 years (Mean age = 48.8 years, S.D. = 10.28 years), with an average experience level of 27.22 years (S.D. = 10.6 years). The sample was also more gender-balanced than in Study 1, with about 57% female and 42% male (1% preferred not to answer). The median team size (subordinates reporting to the manager) was about 3 members. The subordinates rating the managers were aged between 19 and 75 years (Mean = 44.09 years, S.D. = 12.03 years), with an average experience level of 22.76 years (S.D. = 12.14 years), and was 60% female and 38% male (2% chose not to answer). The superiors rating the managers were aged between 31 and 75 years (Mean = 51.63 years, S.D. = 9.20 years), with an average experience level of 29.58 years (S.D. = 9.5 years), and was 42% female and 58% male.

Measures used in the study were similar to those used in Study 1. Managers responded to their manager identity prominence using the developed measure, manager identity centrality (Callero, 1985; Pope & Hall, 2014), managerial self-efficacy (Fast et

al., 2014), prosocial motivation (Grant, 2008), and social dominance orientation (Sidanius et al., 1996). As in Study 1, I collected data on managers' demographics (age, sex, race, education level, etc.), their tenure (in the organization, as a manager, etc.), hierarchical level, industry as possible control variables.

Dependent variables. Managerial behaviors were reported by the subordinates and superiors as the extent to which they agreed that the focal manager engaged in the behaviors of interest. Subordinates reported on managers' internal behaviors in their teams using the same measures as in Study 1 for delegation (Schriesheim et al., 1998) and micromanagement (Detert & Edmondson, 2011). Superiors reported on managers' external boundary-spanning behaviors using the same measures as in Study 1 for representation (Ancona & Caldwell, 1992a; Borman & Brush, 1993) and competition (Rus et al., 2010). Both subordinates and superiors also responded about managers' overall *performance*, a 3-item measure adapted from Tsui (1984) and Sadri, Weber, and Gentry (2011). An example item is: "To what extent has [this manager] met your expectations in his or her managerial roles and responsibilities?".

Contextual moderator. Managers' superiors' perceptions of *managerial discretion* was measured using five items adapted from Preston, Chen, and Leidner (2008). An example item was: "Managers are free to choose strategic options as the business leader of their work unit". As discretion is typically measured as a contextual variable based on environmental factors (Carpenter & Golden, 1997; Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1990), I measured managerial discretion as perceived by the managers' superior. To avoid possible confounds with different discretion awarded to different managers by their superiors based on competencies or trust, superiors responded about

the discretion available to managers in their department in general, and not for any particular manager.

Results

Correlations and descriptive statistics from Study 1 are shown in Table 3. Unlike in Study 1, manager identity prominence was not correlated with delegation, micromanagement, and competitive boundary spanning behaviors. As the data in Study 2 was clustered under supervisors, departments, and occupation types, I first verified if multilevel analysis was necessary to test the hypotheses. Multilevel or hierarchical modeling accounts for the variation in the dependent variable that is attributable to group membership, or in this case reporting to a common superior, being a member of a particular department or an occupation category. As recommended by Raudenbush and Bryk (2002), I first examined a null model with no predictors for each of the dependent variable and for each of the categories (superior, department, and occupation SOC code) to examine variation that could be explained by between-group differences (Hayes, 2006) using the intraclass correlation statistic (ICC). If the average ICC across dependent variables was more than 7%, this would suggest that a significant amount of variation in managerial behaviors was explained by the managers' reporting to the same superior, or by their membership to the department or occupation type. The average ICCs for occupation type (1.30%) and department (5.62%) were not significant. However, the average ICC for superior (21.57%) was significantly higher than 7%. Therefore, I conducted all subsequent analyses using random intercept models, allowing for variation in managerial behaviors based on their membership to their superiors' groups.

Decisional behaviors. Hypotheses 1 and 2 concerned the interaction between manager identity prominence and prosocial motivation on decisional behaviors. Table 8 shows the regression results for the interactions between manager identity prominence, and prosocial motivation and social dominance orientation, and managers' decisional behaviors, internal to the team. The interaction between manager identity prominence and prosocial motivation on subordinate-rated delegation ($b = -.14$, $S.E. = .19$) was not significant, thereby not lending support to Hypotheses 1. The effect of the interaction on subordinate-rated micromanagement ($b = -.30$, $S.E. = .16$) was not significant. However, a simple slopes test suggested that manager identity prominence had a positive relationship with micromanagement when prosocial motivation was lower ($b = .17$, $S.E. = .10$, $p = .07$), but that the effect was not significant when prosocial motivation was higher ($b = .03$, $S.E. = .10$, $n.s.$), suggesting that manager identity prominence was more likely to lead to micromanagement in less prosocial managers. The interaction plots (Figure 6) suggested that a combination of low prosocial motivation and high manager identity prominence led to micromanagement. Thus, Hypothesis 2 was not supported although the pattern of relationships was trending in the hypothesized direction.

Hypotheses 3 and 4 suggested that social dominance orientation made those with higher manager identity prominence less inclusive and more restrictive in their decisional behaviors. The effect of the interaction between manager identity prominence and social dominance orientation on subordinate-rated delegation behaviors was not significant ($b = -.06$, $S.E. = .22$). The interaction plot (Figure 7) suggested that manager identity prominence was positively associated with delegation only when social dominance orientation was lower. However, the simple slopes test was not significant, thereby not supporting Hypothesis 3. The effect of the interaction on subordinate-rated micromanagement was significant ($b = -.49$, $S.E. = .06$, $p < .01$), supporting Hypothesis

4. The interaction plot (Figure 8) showed that manager identity prominence was positively associated with micromanagement when social dominance orientation was higher with a significant positive slope ($b = .23$, $S.E. = .10$, $p < .05$). When social dominance orientation was low, there was no relationship between manager identity prominence and micromanagement ($b = -.03$, $S.E. = .10$, $n.s.$). Taken together, this suggests that manager identity prominence results in more restrictive behaviors within the team when social dominance orientation is higher rather than lower.

Boundary-spanning behaviors. Hypotheses 5-8 examined the effects of prosocial motivation and social dominance orientation on the relationships between manager identity prominence and boundary-spanning behaviors. Regression results for the interaction between manager identity prominence and individual moderators on boundary-spanning behaviors are shown in Table 9. The interaction between manager identity prominence and prosocial motivation on superior-rated representation behavior in the external network was not significant ($b = -.13$, $S.E. = .08$). The interaction plot (Figure 9) and simple slopes test suggested the lack support for Hypothesis 5 although the results were trending in the hypothesized direction, where the relationship between manager identity prominence and representation was positive ($b = .19$, $S.E. = .10$, $p = .06$) when prosocial motivation was low, while the relationship was not significant when prosocial motivation was higher ($b = -.02$, $S.E. = .08$, $n.s.$). The interaction was not significant for competition behaviors ($b = -.12$, $S.E. = .10$), thereby not lending support to Hypotheses 6. The interaction between manager identity prominence and social dominance orientation on superior-rated representation ($b = -.06$, $S.E. = .06$, $n.s.$) and competition ($b = .07$, $S.E. = .07$, $n.s.$) were not significant. Therefore, Hypotheses 7 and 8 were not supported.

Interaction with managerial discretion. Hypotheses 9-12 concerned the interaction between manager identity prominence and managerial discretion on managerial behaviors within and beyond team boundaries, suggesting that manager identity prominence would make managers less inclusive and more restrictive, only in contexts of higher managerial discretion. The effect of the interaction on subordinate-rated delegation behavior was significant ($b = -.62$, $S.E. = .19$, $p < .01$). The interaction plot (Figure 10) and simple slopes test suggested that while relationship between manager identity prominence and delegation was negative in high managerial discretion contexts ($b = -.74$, $S.E. = .18$, $p < .01$), the relationship was positive in low managerial discretion contexts ($b = .48$, $S.E. = .25$, $p = .07$), thereby supporting Hypothesis 9. The effect of the interaction on micromanagement was significant ($b = .48$, $S.E. = .19$, $p < .05$). The interaction plot (Figure 11) and simple slopes test showed that manager identity prominence was positively associated with micromanagement in high managerial discretion contexts ($b = .78$, $S.E. = .19$, $p < .001$), and was not related to micromanagement in low discretion contexts ($b = .05$, $S.E. = .26$, $p = .85$). Therefore, Hypothesis 10 was supported. Taken together, the findings suggested that low discretion contexts dampen managers' ability to engage in both inclusive and restrictive decisional managerial behaviors, thereby in general limiting managers' ability to perform. The interaction between manager identity prominence and managerial discretion on superior-rated representation ($b = -.08$, $S.E. = .07$) and competition ($b = -.03$, $S.E. = .09$) were not significant, thereby not supporting Hypothesis 11 and 12.

Effect on overall managerial performance. Although manager identity prominence did not have a positive effect on aggregate performance (evaluated by subordinate or superior), it had a positive effect on one item of superior-rated performance ($b = .16$, $S.E. = .08$, $p < .05$, controlling for age, sex, tenure, and managerial

self-efficacy) which referred to the manager meeting the superiors' expectations in the role.

Discussion

Results from Study 2 demonstrated that manager identity prominence interacted with social dominance orientation to affect managerial behaviors internal to the team. Specifically, when social dominance orientation was higher, prominent manager identities made managers more controlling and resistant to input from subordinates about team processes. On the other hand, for those lower in social dominance orientation, manager identity prominence was positively associated with providing subordinates with more opportunities to make decisions.

As with Study 1, Study 2 also had some limitations which could have led to several hypotheses not being supported. One key limitation pertains to the low average in manager identity prominence (mean 2.98 on a scale of 1 to 7). While the findings are reflective of the lower half of the manager identity prominence scale, there is less statistical power to understand what happens when manager identity prominence increases to higher levels. The interactions with prosocial motivation with micromanagement and representation behaviors were in the expected direction, but were not significant. This could be attributed to two possible reasons. One reason could be the range-restriction in prosocial motivation stemming from a selection bias. The survey was sent out to several managers with a request to respond, and a note that their response would greatly help a graduate student researcher and a fellow member of the community. Given this framing in the solicitation email, it is likely that there was a systematically higher prosocial motivation among managers who responded to the survey compared to

those who did not. As the prosocial motivation was in general nearer to the higher end of the scale (Mean = 6.22 on a scale of 1 to 7, S.D. = .88), it is likely that there was insufficient range for the interactions between prosocial motivation and manager identity prominence to yield significant results. Another reason for the lack of interaction effects of prosocial motivation pertains to the generic nature of the prosocial motivation measure. This could have led to different respondents thinking about prosocial motivation towards different beneficiaries (e.g. subordinates, organizational members, general others) while responding to the measure, thereby reducing the overall fidelity of the measure and therefore its effect on the manager identity prominence-performance relationships. Future research could address this concern by examining the interactive effects of prosocial motivation towards specific beneficiaries (Grant, 2012).

The interaction hypotheses on representation and competition behaviors received less support in Study 2, compared to Study 1. A combination of contextual factors and social desirability effects may have led to lower average competition behaviors ratings in general, which in turn led to the interaction effects on competition behaviors not being statistically significant. Given the cooperative culture of the educational organization where the data was collected, it is likely that competitive behaviors were in general low (Mean = 1.41 on a scale of 1 to 7, Maximum = 3.67, S.D. = .60). On the other hand, the superiors' social desirability could have also led to them providing lower scores to managers on self-serving competitive behaviors. As multiple managers were rated by the same superior, it is also likely that the low variation in both representation (S.D. = .58) and competition behaviors led to the lack of statistical significance of these hypotheses.

The contextual moderation of managerial discretion revealed interesting insights into the effects of manager identity prominence on behaviors. As hypothesized, the

interaction effects of managerial discretion on decisional behaviors were supported, such that contextual discretion provided more control to those with higher manager identity prominence while making team decisions. These results suggest that those with a prominent manager identity are more likely to adapt and use high discretion contexts to their advantage (Ashforth & Saks, 2000). They are likely to consolidate their position of power, and make decisions without consulting others. In addition to this effect however, manager identity prominence also led to higher delegation in low discretion contexts. In other words, in low discretion contexts, managers relinquished control over decisions to their subordinates. This could be attributed to managers having less access to information and resources compared to their subordinates, and therefore deferring to technical expertise of their subordinates for day-to-day decisions. However, future research is required to understand the mechanisms behind why manager identity prominence brings about delegation behaviors under these conditions.

Unlike in Study 1, there were no positive main effects of manager identity prominence on any of the managerial behaviors in Study 2. This suggests that the main effects observed in Study 1 could have been influenced by common method variance. Although there was no significant effect of manager identity prominence on overall performance evaluation by subordinates, the positive effect of manager identity prominence on superior-rated role expectations is encouraging.

Chapter 5: General Discussion

In this dissertation, I proposed a definition of manager identity prominence as the extent to which an individual's manager identity—or being in charge of a team—is more representative of the self than other work-related identities. I developed a 6-item survey instrument to capture manager identity prominence. The items displayed good construct validity (convergent and discriminant) across multiple samples and was robust across different samples and study contexts. Responses on manager identity prominence showed significant variation among respondents across multiple studies, showing that although all respondents were managers, they could attach different levels of relative importance to their manager identities. I proposed and tested hypotheses on the interaction of manager identity prominence with individual and contextual factors on managerial behaviors. Results from two studies suggest that prosocial motivation, social dominance orientation, and managerial discretion modify the way in which individuals with prominent manager identities behave, both within and outside their teams. Whereas for those higher on prosocial motivation, manager identity prominence is likely to lead to more inclusive tactics of maintaining team processes and resources, social dominance orientation is likely to make those with prominent manager identities more restrictive. Managerial discretion makes those with prominent manager identities less inclusive and more restrictive within the team, although such effects did not hold for boundary-spanning behaviors.

The moderating effect of social dominance orientation on the relationship between manager identity prominence and micromanagement in their teams was significant across both studies. This finding could potentially explain managers' hesitation in accepting input from subordinates. Individuals with high social dominance

orientation and a prominent manager identity could perceive a combination of high legitimacy of authority and a fear of losing control. It is likely that such individuals feel protective about their ability to make decisions and therefore feel averse to sharing this responsibility with others. This finding has important implications for research on employee voice behavior—defined as the provision of improvement-oriented input to someone with the authority to act (Morrison, 2011). Managers could perceive voice as questioning their authority to make decisions and therefore prevent constructive suggestions from team members that could lead to organizational change. Research on the lack of openness or defensiveness to subordinate voice is still nascent (see Detert & Edmondson, 2011 and Fast et al., 2014 for exceptions). Further research is required to identify factors that could potentially reverse the effect of manager identity prominence on micromanagement behaviors and make them more open to employee voice.

Although taken alone, some of the hypotheses were not supported across studies, when considering inclusive and restrictive behaviors together, the supported hypotheses suggest a trend that could have implications for research and practice. For example, manager identity prominence was shown to lead to delegation when prosocial motivation was higher in Study 1, and to lead to micromanagement when prosocial motivation was lower in Study 2. Together, this suggests that prosocial motivation could make those with prominent manager identities focus on behaviors that are more facilitative and helpful to their subordinates. However, prosocial motivation was also likely to make managers high on manager identity prominence focus more on competitive behaviors (Study 1), and less on representation behaviors outside the team (Study 2). Taken together, these findings suggest that prosocial managers with prominent identities could be ideal for encouraging a participative culture within teams. However, their competitive nature external to their teams could be a double-edged sword. They could be highly desirable in organizations or

contexts where such competition is required or is beneficial, such as sales teams or innovation teams which are allocated resources based on performance. However, these selectively prosocial managers could be detrimental to coordination in manufacturing setups which need more sharing of responsibility and credit across teams. More longitudinal research across different organizational contexts is likely to uncover downstream consequences on team and organizational outcomes and provide a more nuanced understanding of the practical implications of a prominent manager identity.

In general, the predictions of the effect of manager identity prominence on representation behaviors were not supported in Study 1 and only weakly supported in Study 2. This could be due to two reasons. Theoretically, manager identity prominence includes the contrast between the importance individuals attach to being a manager versus being associated with their organization. As a result, they may deprioritize situating the team in the broader organizational agenda at the expense of leading the team based on their own goals and aspirations. However, their role as a manager may also warrant understanding and incorporation of strategic objectives of the organization in the way they manage team decisions and resources. A combination of these factors may lead to the lack of significant relationships between manager identity prominence and representation behaviors. Managers' awareness of organizational strategies and their organizational identification or commitment may bring about a positive relationship between manager identity prominence and representation. Another reason for the lack of significant effects could pertain to the measure of representation not being as clearly inclusive (not restrictive) as the measure for delegation (micromanagement and competition). Thus, a different measure that incorporates adjustment of team goals for the sake of strategic alignment to organizational goals could be used to examine the effects of manager identity prominence on inclusive boundary-spanning behaviors.

Overall, results from the two studies suggest that both within and beyond team boundaries, manager identity prominence is likely under various conditions to lead to restrictive behaviors that allows them to retain control over decisions and resources in their teams. There are several questions and possible lines of inquiry that arise from these findings. First, the unsupported hypotheses warrant a detailed examination of the construct of manager identity prominence in conjunction with other constructs used in identity research, that may have implications for managerial performance. For example, the self-serving nature of the behaviors resulting from a prominent manager identity prompts the question of whether the manager identity had been defined by the individuals as a personal or a relational identity (Brewer & Gardner, 1996). Qualitative data on what characteristics individuals believe define a managerial role could help shed light on this question. Recent research on leader identity level suggested that personal, relational, and collective definitions of the leader identity influence behaviors such as consideration and abusive leadership behaviors (Johnson, Venus, Lanaj, Mao, & Chang, 2012). Thus, the level of the manager identity could interact with manager identity prominence to bring about different types of behaviors towards different sets of stakeholders.

Relatedly, findings also suggest that further explication of the construct of manager identity prominence is required from a multiple identities perspective. The theoretical basis of identity prominence positions manager identity as a competitor to every other identity that the individual may have. Therefore, it does not take into account whether the contrast is stronger for other competing personal identities (e.g. individual contributor), or group-related identities (e.g. organization), or is equally strong across both. This implies that the effect of manager identity prominence on self-serving behaviors could stem as much from the suppression of their group identities as from the importance of their manager identity itself. The measure also does not take into account

the absolute strength (identification) of the manager identity or that of the other identities. For example, an individual may have a prominent manager identity, but may also identify strongly with their team. In such cases, these managers may be less likely to engage in micromanagement even if their other personal characteristics or contextual factors guide them to do so. They may engage more in competition behaviors compared to someone with a prominent manager identity and high organizational identification. Therefore, future research can either examine interactions of traditional measures of identification (Mael & Ashforth, 1992; Bartel, 2001) with the item-based measure of manager identity prominence or use advanced methods to capture more information about the entire identity prominence hierarchy using a ranking-based measure or a network measure of multiple identities (Ramarajan, 2014).

Finally, given the significant direct effects of social dominance orientation on manager identity prominence as well as the restrictive behaviors in Study 1, the findings bring up the question of whether social dominance orientation could indeed be a motivating factor that makes individuals develop a prominent manager identity. Such individuals may believe that group-based identities are hierarchy-attenuating forces as they are more likely to bring about parity and conformity (Sidanius, 1993). They have an incentive to prioritize their manager identity relative to their group-based identities because it provides them with the agency that they may lack by being a prototypical member of a particular group (organization, department, team). They may also have an incentive to prioritize the manager identity over their individual contributor identity because they are likely to believe that being a manager provides them with subordinates as additional resources at their disposal to accomplish their work. Given the legitimacy that is offered by a managerial position, they are more likely to idealize their manager identities and be motivated to engage in restrictive managerial behaviors compared to

those who are lower in social dominance orientation. As the data in these studies were cross-sectional, it was not possible to temporally separate social dominance orientation from manager identity prominence. Future research could examine whether social dominance orientation is indeed likely to make managers prioritize their manager identity over others, and whether this in turn leads to restrictive behaviors.

CONTRIBUTIONS

Contributions to theory

This paper makes several important contributions to research and practice. First, my dissertation contributes to research on managerial effectiveness by bringing together perspectives from identity theory and social identity theory to understand how individuals behave in a managerial role. I explore the concept of manager identity prominence, which helps uncover why some managers may be more likely than others to prioritize engagement in managerial behaviors such as managing team decisions and managing resources across team boundaries. Owing to its foundation in social identification (Ashforth & Mael, 1989), prior research on identity and identification of managers in organizations has thus far focused on the importance of group identities—i.e. identification with organizational, team, department, etc. This stream of research has shown that a group-based identity fulfills individuals' sense of belonging, reduces uncertainty about conforming to norms of behavior within the group, and encourages loyalty and citizenship to the group (Ashforth, 2001; Hogg & Terry, 2000; Baumeister & Leary, 1995). However, alongside their membership to various social groups, managers also occupy a formal role in the organizational hierarchy, based on which they construct a manager identity. By examining the role-based identity of managers, I show that the

relative prominence of a role-based identity could explain managers' engagement in behaviors that cannot be explained purely by their group affiliations in organizations. In doing so, I contribute to research on identity management among managers, which has thus far been more descriptive and qualitative (Mintzberg, 1973; Hill, 1992; Pratt & Foreman, 2000). Significant variations in manager identity prominence among respondents across studies demonstrate the possible multi-finality of the manager identity development process. Further, I show that manager identity prominence is a sense-making tool that makes role occupants prioritize behaviors consistent with their manager identity over behaviors associated with other identities they may have such as an individual contributor, or a team member.

Second, I contribute to growing research on multiple identities by introducing a measure that effectively captures the relative importance of the manager identity compared to other individual and group identities at work. Identity scholars have underscored the need to accurately understand how individuals balance and make sense of multiple identities to relate with others at work (Ashforth, Schinoff, & Rogers, 2016; Ramarajan, 2014; Anteby, Chan, & DiBenigno, 2016). Identity prominence provides the means to capture the importance of one identity relative to other identities. Manager identity prominence also provides insights into how managers interact with their various stakeholders. Thus, introducing the construct and exploring the basic relationships between manager identity prominence and managerial behaviors is an essential first step in conducting further research on multiple identities. My dissertation also contributes to developing research on role-based identities in organizations in general (Burke & Stets, 2009). Although recent research has begun to examine the effects of role-based identities on behavior, they are still predominantly based on identity content, or absolute identification, rather than the relative prominence of the identity (cf. Welbourne &

Paterson, 2017). Thus, a validated measure for identity prominence can be used to examine the prominence of identities that are of consequence to the organization such as a consultant identity, or a top manager identity, and the cognitive and behavioral implications of such prominence.

Third, my paper underscores the inherent complexity of the managerial role and therefore the importance of examining individual-level moderators that could qualify the relationship between a prominent manager identity and managerial behaviors. Since managing decisions and resources can be inclusive or restrictive, I demonstrate how individuals' inherent motivations towards benefiting others at work influences how their managerial behaviors are manifest. This contributes to research on managerial cognition and performance by disentangling the effects of a prominent identity and that of individual attitudes and contextual discretion on managerial behavior. These findings open up avenues of future research on the paradoxes inherent to other managerial behaviors such as strategic planning, monitoring their team's work, bringing about organizational change, and managing their relationship with subordinates (Dierdorff et al., 2009; Zhang, Waldman, Han, & Li, 2015). Furthermore, examining manager identity prominence in conjunction with individual and contextual factors could help explain the conditions under which managers are likely to prioritize certain types of behaviors over others, and the effectiveness of such behaviors in those contexts.

Fourth, I integrate research on identity in organizations with other streams of literature such as prosocial motivation, self-serving behaviors, boundary-spanning, and strategic management research on managerial discretion. It has been suggested that the benefits of prosocial motivation are contingent on the identities of individual actors (Grant, 2009). Results from Study 1 further demonstrate that the benefits from managers'

prosocial motivation may accrue selectively to certain stakeholders. A prosocially motivated manager for whom the manager identity is prominent could act selfishly for the benefit of his or her team, but to the detriment of other stakeholders or the organization as a whole. This finding is likely to have important implications for manager-subordinate relationships and subordinates' relational identification with managers in organizations (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). Recent research on multiple identities has begun to examine how subordinates and managers' identification with different foci could influence subordinates' cooperative behaviors (Bartel, Wiesenfeld, Janardhanan, & Dow, 2016; Zhao, Chen, Oh, & Ryu, 2016). Thus, the prominence of individuals' manager identity may make them as well as their subordinates engage in citizenship selectively towards their own teams, rather than, and even at the expense of, the organization as a whole. Research on boundary-spanning has thus far focused on team leaders' engagement in activities across team boundaries (Ancona & Caldwell, 1992a; Druskat & Wheeler, 2003; Benoliel & Somech, 2014). Demonstrating that boundary-spanning could be inclusive or restrictive and that manager identity prominence could lead to cooperation or competition across team boundaries provides a basis for future research on the implications of such behaviors not only for the manager, but also for the team and the organization.

Practical Implications

I make contributions to managerial practice by demonstrating that manager identity prominence is a differentiating factor between individuals occupying managerial roles who do and do not think and behave as managers. This would help organizations identify individuals who are more likely than others to engage in managerial behaviors

(delegate, act as a cooperative liaison, drive change, etc.), and therefore be more effective in a managerial role.

Furthermore, given the diverse nature of the managerial role, the findings point to the possible demerits of having individuals with prominent manager identities occupying managerial roles. The moderation analyses demonstrate how prosocial motivation and social dominance orientation determine when individuals with prominent manager identities are likely to engage in self-serving resource-hoarding behaviors that may be detrimental to their teams and the organization as a whole. Results show that emphasizing manager identities in organizations could be beneficial or detrimental depending on the attributes of the individual role occupants.

Exploring further consequences of manager identity prominence will provide senior managers and organizations the wherewithal to understand why and under what conditions certain individuals make for better managers than others. This would enable several benefits for managers and practitioners such as better selection and promotion decisions, provision of feedback for improvement in managerial performance, and better employee satisfaction.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Boundary conditions

Although I reviewed research on role transitions and managerial self-narratives, this dissertation was not an examination of the development of managerial identity over time or across role transitions. The purpose of the dissertation was not to inductively generate theory or conduct a qualitative examination on the content or construction

process of manager identity. Instead, I proposed and tested theory about the relative prominence of the manager identity to individuals at a given point in time, and how it interacted with individual attitudes and contextual moderators to affect managerial behaviors. While I acknowledge that the content of manager identity could vary across contexts, and across different counter-role occupants of the same individual (subordinates, peers, etc.), examining such variation was beyond the scope of this dissertation. I used a generic definition of what it means to be a manager, which is generalizable across most team-types, contexts, and situations, with the assumption that the manager identity is likely to have an independent impact on managerial performance. Future research is required to unpack the dynamics associated with the potentially diverse content of manager identities.

While I used a generic definition of managers and restricted my theoretical and empirical focus on lower and mid-level managers, there could be boundary conditions that modify the effects of manager identity prominence on outcomes. For example, manager experience or tenure could modify the relationships between manager identity prominence and different managerial behaviors. Staying in a managerial role for longer is likely to strengthen manager identity prominence (McCall & Simmons, 1978), and make the manager identity a more dominating part of the individual's self-concept. Additionally, moving up the organizational hierarchy and supervising more people are likely to strengthen the effects of a prominent manager identity on the managers' sense of power. As a result, it is likely that higher level managers feel less obligated to their skip-level subordinates, as they may feel that it is their intermediate manager's duty to be concerned about their interests. The prominence of a higher-level manager (top manager) identity could therefore be associated with increased focus on strategic planning behaviors rather than on interpersonal behaviors.

Another boundary condition pertains to the type of managers or leaders that my theory would apply to. The “manager” title is sometimes given to others who are individual contributors without subordinates reporting to them directly, but are coordinators or project managers and are therefore in charge of groups of individuals, e.g. project or program managers. I restrict my theorization of manager identity prominence to team managers who necessarily have subordinates reporting to them. Likewise, in my studies, I included only those managers who had at least one subordinate directly reporting to them. My theory is likely to not be generalizable to project managers. I speculate that in the absence of a team to lead, managers may feel less responsibility towards their project team members who do not have a direct reporting relationship with them. As a result, individuals with a prominent project manager identity may behave more like well-networked individual contributors rather than team managers with a prominent manager identity.

Limitations

One key limitation of the study design is that manager identity prominence and moderators of prosocial motivation and social dominance orientation are all reported by the manager in both studies. Thus, it is likely that my results are influenced by common method and reverse causality concerns. It is indeed possible that engaging in managerial behaviors more could result in an increased prominence of the manager identity compared to other identities. When managers spend more effort on managerial tasks as opposed to individual tasks, their subordinates are also more likely to accept them as their manager, or in other words grant them a manager identity (Bartel & Dutton, 2001), thereby strengthening the managers’ own commitment towards the identity (McCall & Simmons, 1978). This is in turn likely to heighten the ranking of the manager identity in

the individual's prominence hierarchy. As both Study 1 and Study 2 were based on cross-sectional data, it is difficult to establish causality between the variables based on these two studies. As hinted by the positive correlation between tenure as a manager and manager identity prominence, it is likely that the engagement in managerial behaviors could result in a more prominent manager identity over time. One way to address this issue apart from temporally separating the identity prominence variables from behavioral evaluations is to test if manager identity prominence can be manipulated to be higher or lower, and conducting an experimental study to verify the conditions under which a more prominent manager identity cues up inclusive or restrictive decisional and boundary spanning behaviors among respondents.

Another limitation lies with the generalizability of the findings to the broader working population owing to the gender composition of the samples. The first study had almost four-fifths female respondents, and the second had around 57% female managers, with 60% female subordinates and 42% female superiors. According to a recent report by McKinsey and Company (Devillard, Hunt, & Yee, 2018) based on a study conducted on 222 United States organizations, the average proportion of female members in the workforce is around 48% at the entry-level, 37% at the managerial level, and 29-34% at the senior manager level (which would correspond to the superiors who rated managerial behaviors in the Study 2 sample). Therefore, in general, the samples from the two studies had between 12% and 40% more female respondents than the population. It is likely that some of the findings in Study 1 were not replicated in Study 2 for this reason. More research is required to understand if and how the mechanisms for the relationships between manager identity prominence on managerial behaviors differ for men and women.

Future Research

The introduction of the construct of manager identity prominence and findings from the two studies provide several avenues for future research on managerial cognition, identity, and team processes. Further inquiry is required to further elucidate the contrasts in the mechanisms by which a strong role identity affects individuals' behaviors compared to identification with a social-category. Given the traditional motivations for individuals to identify with groups such as belonging, control, meaning, etc. (Ashforth, 2001), these mechanisms may affect managers differently and to different extents when their manager identity is relatively more important to them. While I have theoretically integrated from prior research and have put forth several cognitive mechanisms of a prominent identity such as control over external environment, identifying opportunity structures, and safeguarding associated entities (Ashforth, 2001; McCall & Simmons, 1978; Swann, 1987), I do not examine these empirically in this dissertation. Some of these mechanisms could contradict each other and lead to paradoxes for managers with a prominent manager identity. Therefore, it is necessary to systematically explicate these and other possible mechanisms that could stem from a prominent manager identity. For example, manager identity prominence could result in a sense of power—the perceived ability to influence others or the environment (Anderson, John, & Keltner, 2012; Keltner, Gruenfeld, & Anderson, 2003)—as well as a sense of responsibility—the perceived obligation towards others, or towards achieving a group's objectives (Schaumberg & Flynn, 2012; Tost, 2015). Together these cognitive mechanisms could explain why manager identity prominence results in different types of managerial behaviors.

Future research can also explore how a prominent manager identity relates to various identity management tactics that individuals use to preserve their manager

identity, such as adopting provisional selves (Ibarra, 1999), engaging in building integrated identities (Berry, 1990), or maintaining clear distinctions between their various identities (Pratt & Foreman, 2000). For example, individuals could be more likely to develop a prominent manager identity when given exposure to powerful role models. This may in turn have implications for the way in which they position themselves and the type of behaviors they engage in across the broader organizational network. Alternatively, under conditions of a strong contexts or in prestigious organizations (Ashforth & Mael, 1989), they may be more likely to develop an integrated “organizational manager” or “departmental manager” identity, which incorporates characteristics of the manager identity as well as values particular to the organization. Manager identity prominence is also likely to influence managers’ daily and long-term role transitions (Ashforth et al., 2000). It could be fruitful to examine whether having a more prominent manager identity leads to spillover effects such as over-dependence on others even if the work involves the managers’ own individual contribution, or to managerial cognitions and behaviors in non-work contexts (Rothbard & Ramarajan, 2009).

Manager identity prominence is likely to have implications for downstream team processes and outcomes such as team conflict, subordinate team identification, goal clarity among team members, and voice. It has been shown that leader prototypicality—the extent to which a manager exemplifies the characteristics of the team (Giessner, van Knippenberg, van Ginkel, & Sleebos, 2013; Hogg, 2001)—affects team identification of the subordinates and other team outcomes (Steffens, Schuh, Haslam, Perez, & van Dick, 2015). Given manager identity prominence contrasts the manager identity with their team member identities, such managers are likely to be less prototypical team members. However, those with higher manager identity prominence are also likely to communicate

team goals with better clarity, thereby providing a stronger sense of collective identity to their subordinates. Therefore, future research can examine manager identity prominence in combination with team prototypicality to understand the effects managers have on their team members' attitudes and behaviors.

Given the propensity of manager identity prominence to bring about territoriality among managers, future research is required to understand the possible negative consequences of manager identity prominence such as lack of adherence to justice rules and norms or the lack of openness to employee voice. Future research could also examine the impact of other individual characteristics such as narcissism—defined as a grandiose, yet fragile sense of self with a preoccupation for success and admiration (Ames, Rose, & Anderson, 2006)—and manager humility—defined as a combination of a willingness for accurate self-views, appreciation for others' strengths and contributions, and openness to new ideas (Owens, Johnson, & Mitchell, 2013)—on how manager identity prominence affects behaviors. For example, it is likely that a narcissistic manager with high manager identity prominence would engage in risky decision-making that may endanger the team and their organization. On the other hand, humble individuals with a prominent manager identity in middle and top management positions could be effective in mentoring and developing their subordinates as their replacements in the future.

Integrating strategic management research on managerial discretion and manager identity prominence can offer insights into other processes of consequence to organizational researchers such as strategic planning and organizational change. Strategic planning is defined as decision-making that provides clear objectives for the team, and aligns them with the broader organization's objectives (Elbanna, 2008). Future research can explore the conditions under which manager identity prominence acts as a buoyant

force that makes middle managers focus on higher-level planning and monitoring rather than working on actual tasks as individual contributors or micromanaging their subordinates. Floyd and Wooldridge (1992) showed that within the strategic planning repertoire available to them, managers have the option to engage in actions that are not necessarily synchronous with the organization's strategy. Thus, through their engagement in strategic planning, managers have the means to lead and implement organizational change. It is likely that manager identity prominence leads to a sense of empowerment (Ashforth, 1989; Spreitzer, 1995). Empowerment is the opposite of powerlessness, and refers to the ability to bring about a change in the external environment. Given the strong motivation to influence their immediate external environment (Stets & Burke, 2005), I expect that those high on manager identity prominence will be motivated to engage in leading change in their organizations.

CONCLUSION

Managers are highly consequential to organizations and often juggle multiple hats in the workplace. Building on theoretical foundation of identity theory and social identity theory, my dissertation takes a first step into understanding what happens when managers prioritize their manager identity over other identities at work. Results from two studies conducted on managers working in the United States suggest that emphasizing a manager identity among managers could be beneficial or detrimental depending on the beliefs and motivations of the individual occupying the role as well as the nature of the organizational context. Managers and organizations could benefit from future research on the possible implications of a prominent manager identity on team and organizational outcomes.

Tables and Figures

Table 1: Measure Development—Step 1: Expert Evaluation Study

Representativeness scores and comparisons of manager identity prominence with other manager identity constructs

| | Prominence | Salience | Centrality | Identification |
|--|-------------------|-----------------|-------------------|-----------------------|
| Average Representativeness Scores | | | | |
| Prominence items | 5.38 (.60) | 3.45 (.33) | 5.40 (.61) | 4.10 (.16) |
| Salience items | 4.68 (.52) | 6.22 (.38) | 3.50 (.47) | 3.76 (.14) |
| Centrality items | 3.77 (.34) | 3.14 (.18) | 5.59 (.22) | 5.13 (.38) |
| Identification items | 2.40 (.14) | 2.33 (.28) | 3.62 (.22) | 6.61 (.37) |
| No. of items representing other constructs* | | | | |
| Prominence items | - | 2 | 4 | 5 |
| Salience items | 1 | - | 1 | 0 |
| Centrality items | 0 | 0 | - | 6 |
| Identification items | 0 | 0 | 0 | - |

Values in parentheses represent standard deviations in the representation scores.

* Number of items (out of 6), for which there was no significant difference between the representativeness scores on the focal construct (row) and the other construct (column). Zero represents all items represented the focal construct, and had significantly lower representativeness scores on other constructs. E.g. Four prominence items had statistically comparable representativeness scores on centrality.

Table 2a: Measure Development—Step 2: Bivariate Correlations

| | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|----------------------------------|-------|-------|------|
| 1 Manager Identity Prominence | | | |
| 2 Manager Identity Salience | .47** | | |
| 3 Manager Identity Centrality | .39** | .34** | |
| 4 Managerial Role Identification | .33** | .16* | .17* |

** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$

Table 2b: Measure Development—Step 2: Exploratory Factor Pattern Matrix

| Item | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|-----------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Prominence1 | .287 | .427 | -.006 | .023 |
| Prominence2 | .013 | .845 | -.103 | -.017 |
| Prominence3 | -.093 | .906 | -.044 | -.032 |
| Prominence4 | -.008 | .756 | .119 | -.013 |
| Prominence5 | .030 | .871 | -.032 | -.034 |
| Prominence6 | -.019 | .847 | .081 | .003 |
| Salience1 | .778 | -.031 | -.072 | .022 |
| Salience2 | .790 | -.180 | .003 | .047 |
| Salience3 | .755 | .064 | -.067 | -.065 |
| Salience4 | .805 | .085 | .022 | -.005 |
| Salience5 | .816 | .038 | .021 | -.011 |
| Salience6 | .733 | .025 | .075 | -.015 |
| Centrality1 | -.072 | .004 | -.034 | .856 |
| Centrality2 | -.079 | .097 | -.037 | .882 |
| Centrality3 | .201 | .093 | .020 | .581 |
| Centrality4 | .075 | -.012 | .071 | .824 |
| Centrality5 | -.036 | -.144 | -.034 | .522 |
| Centrality6 | .026 | -.045 | .004 | .875 |
| Identification1 | -.096 | .022 | .715 | .034 |
| Identification2 | .053 | -.057 | .695 | -.056 |
| Identification3 | .145 | -.033 | .788 | -.094 |
| Identification4 | .018 | -.013 | .767 | .063 |
| Identification5 | .047 | .007 | .858 | -.037 |
| Identification6 | -.196 | .045 | .809 | .057 |

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring; Rotation: Promax with Kaiser

Normalization; Rotation converged in 5 iterations

Table 3: Measure Development—Step 3: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

| Model No. | No. of factors | Description | Model Chi-Squared (Lack of fit) | Δ Chi-Squared from Model 3 | RMSEA [90% C.I.] | CFI | TLI | SRMR | Remarks |
|-----------|----------------|--|------------------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------|-----|-----|------|-----------------|
| Model 1 | 3 | Manager identity prominence + centrality (1 factor) Manager identity salience | 1077.8 | 625.9*** | [.17, .19] | .71 | .66 | .21 | Under-factoring |
| Model 2 | 3 | Manager identity prominence + salience (1 factor) Manager identity centrality | 937.6 | 485.7*** | [.16, .18] | .75 | .71 | .19 | Under-factoring |
| Model 3 | 4 | Manager identity prominence Manager identity centrality Manager identity salience Managerial self-efficacy | 451.9 | - | [.10, .12] | .90 | .87 | .13 | Expected model |
| Model 4 | 5 | Manager identity prominence - Group [^] Manager identity prominence - Individual ^{^^} Manager identity centrality Manager identity salience Managerial self-efficacy | 443.5 | 8.41 | [.10, .12] | .90 | .87 | .13 | Over-factoring |

*** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$. [^] Manager identity prominence - Group comprises 3 items contrasting manager identity with group identities (profession, organization, team, and department member). ^{^^} Manager identity prominence - Individual comprises 2 items contrasting manager identity with individual identities (employee and individual contributor). Fit Indices: RMSEA: Root-Mean-Squared Error of Approximation; CFI: Comparative Fit Index; TLI: Tucker-Lewis Index; SRMR: Squared Root-Mean Residual

Table 4: Study 1—Manager Panel Study: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

| | Mean | S.D. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|--------------------------------|-------|------|-------|-------|-------|--------|--------|-------|-------|-----|------|-------|------|
| 1 Manager Identity Prominence | 3.30 | 1.16 | .85 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2 Manager Identity Centrality | 5.13 | 1.13 | .38** | .91 | | | | | | | | | |
| 3 Managerial Self-Efficacy | 4.27 | .51 | .15** | .35** | .90 | | | | | | | | |
| 4 Prosocial Motivation | 5.72 | 1.20 | .02 | .18** | .26** | .95 | | | | | | | |
| 5 Social Dominance Orientation | 2.40 | 1.32 | .30** | .11 | .08 | -.06 | .92 | | | | | | |
| 6 Delegation | 3.17 | .73 | .13* | .11 | .07 | .02 | .00 | .81 | | | | | |
| 7 Micromanagement | 2.18 | 1.14 | .28** | .01 | -.07 | -.18** | .36** | -.04 | .90 | | | | |
| 8 Representation | 3.90 | .86 | -.03 | .22** | .31** | .35** | -.03 | .18** | -.08 | .86 | | | |
| 9 Competition | 1.50 | .82 | .25** | -.02 | -.02 | -.10 | .25** | .14* | .41** | .03 | .82 | | |
| 10 Age | 36.17 | 8.33 | -.03 | -.03 | -.04 | .00 | -.10 | .03 | -.06 | .08 | -.03 | | |
| 11 Sex | - | - | -.08 | .06 | -.05 | .05 | -.19** | -.01 | -.05 | .09 | -.10 | -.08 | |
| 12 Managerial Tenure | 4.40 | 4.13 | .06 | .11 | .04 | .04 | -.05 | .08 | -.06 | .09 | .01 | .58** | -.01 |

N = 304. ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$. Diagonal elements represent scale reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha)

Table 5: Study 1—Manager Panel: Regression Analyses: Decisional Behaviors

| | Decisional Behaviors | | | | | |
|---|----------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| | Delegation | | | Micromanagement | | |
| | Step 1 | Step 2 | Step 3 | Step 1 | Step 2 | Step 3 |
| Intercept | 2.91** (.56) | 2.90** (.57) | 2.91** (.56) | 3.69** (.83) | 3.23** (.77) | 3.38** (.77) |
| Age | -.00 (.01) | -.00 (.01) | -.00 (.01) | -.01 (.01) | .00 (.01) | .00 (.01) |
| Sex | .03 (.12) | .05 (.13) | .04 (.13) | -.33 (.19) | -.06 (.17) | -.06 (.17) |
| Tenure as manager | .01 (.01) | .01 (.01) | .01 (.01) | -.00 (.02) | -.01 (.02) | -.01 (.02) |
| Managerial Self Efficacy | .07 (.09) | .06 (.10) | .06 (.10) | -.14 (.14) | -.21 (.13) | -.25 (.13) |
| Manager Identity Prominence | | .07 (.05) | .05 (.05) | | .20** (.06) | .20** (.06) |
| Prosocial Motivation | | -.03 (.04) | .00 (.05) | | -.11 (.06) | -.15 (.06) |
| Social Dominance Orientation | | -.02 (.04) | -.03 (.04) | | .28** (.05) | .28** (.05) |
| Mgr Identity Prominence X Prosocial Motivation | | | .08* (.04) | | | -.08 (.05) |
| Mgr Identity Prominence X Social Dominance Orientation | | | .02 (.03) | | | .06 (.04) |
| R-squared | .01 | .01 | .04 | .02 | .23 | .24 |
| Adjusted R-squared | .00 | -.01 | .00 | .00 | .20 | .21 |
| R-squared change (last step) | - | .00 | .03 | - | .21 | .01 |

** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$

Table 6: Study 1—Manager Panel: Regression Analyses: Boundary Spanning Behaviors

| | Boundary-spanning Behaviors | | | | | |
|---|-----------------------------|----------------|----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| | Representation | | | Competition | | |
| | Step 1 | Step 2 | Step 3 | Step 1 | Step 2 | Step 3 |
| Intercept | .88 (.58) | 1.40* (.58) | 1.41* (.58) | 2.21** (.62) | 2.16** (.62) | 2.21** (.61) |
| Age | .00 (.01) | .00 (.01) | .00 (.01) | -.01 (.01) | .00 (.01) | .00 (.01) |
| Sex | .26^ (.13) | .22 (.13) | .22 (.13) | -.23 (.14) | -.10 (.14) | -.10 (.14) |
| Tenure as manager | .01 (.01) | .01 (.01) | .01 (.01) | .00 (.01) | -.00 (.01) | -.00 (.01) |
| Managerial Self Efficacy | .56** (.10) | .45** (.10) | .44** (.10) | -.02 (.11) | -.09 (.11) | -.09 (.11) |
| Manager Identity Prominence | | -.08 (.05) | -.06 (.04) | | .14** (.05) | .11* (.05) |
| Prosocial Motivation | | .20** (.04) | .18** (.05) | | -.02 (.05) | .02 (.05) |
| Social Dominance Orientation | | .06 (.04) | .06 (.04) | | .12** (.04) | .11* (.04) |
| Mgr Identity Prominence X Prosocial Motivation | | | -.03 (.04) | | | .10* (.04) |
| Mgr Identity Prominence X Social Dominance Orientation | | | -.00 (.03) | | | .04 (.03) |
| R-squared | .14 | .22 | .22 | .01 | .11 | .13 |
| Adjusted R-squared | .12 | .19 | .19 | -.01 | .08 | .10 |
| R-squared change (last step) | - | .08 | .00 | - | .10 | .02 |

** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$

Table 7: Study 2—Field Study: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

| Variables | Mean | S.D. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
|--------------------------------|-------|-------|--------|--------|--------|-------|-------|--------|-----|--------|-----|------|--------|-----|
| 1 Age | 44.09 | 12.03 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2 Sex | - | - | -.14** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3 Managerial Tenure | 14.20 | 9.90 | .05 | .04 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4 Managerial Self-Efficacy | 4.10 | .48 | -.02 | .02 | .00 | .87 | | | | | | | | |
| 5 Manager Identity Prominence | 2.98 | 1.07 | .09 | -.07 | -.07 | .08 | .81 | | | | | | | |
| 6 Prosocial Motivation | 6.22 | .88 | -.10* | .09 | .04 | .25** | -.02 | .95 | | | | | | |
| 7 Social Dominance Orientation | 2.01 | .92 | -.05 | -.15** | -.05 | .01 | .16** | -.24** | .84 | | | | | |
| <i>Subordinate Ratings</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 8 Delegation | 3.42 | .83 | -.02 | -.08 | -.13 | -.04 | .02 | -.05 | .05 | .84 | | | | |
| 9 Micromanagement | 1.96 | .95 | .00 | -.01 | -.07 | .03 | .12 | -.02 | .09 | -.44** | .96 | | | |
| <i>Superior Ratings</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 10 Managerial Discretion | 3.03 | .68 | -.11 | -.14 | -.21 | .11 | .11 | -.05 | .01 | .05 | .15 | .81 | | |
| 11 Representation | 4.45 | .58 | -.32** | .00 | -.42** | .16 | .09 | -.03 | .16 | .29* | .09 | .10 | .73 | |
| 12 Competition | 1.41 | .60 | .25* | -.01 | -.07 | -.11 | .05 | -.10 | .13 | -.10 | .18 | -.11 | -.35** | .75 |

N = 482 (no. of managers). No. of managers with Subordinate ratings = 228. No. of managers with Superior ratings = 93.

Min n in correlation table = 50 (managers with both subordinate and superior ratings). ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$. Diagonal elements represent scale reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha)

Table 8: Regression – Decisional Behaviors

| | Decisional Behaviors | | | | | |
|---|----------------------|-----------------|------------------|-----------------|----------------|------------------|
| | Delegation | | | Micromanagement | | |
| | Step 1 | Step 2 | Step 3 | Step 1 | Step 2 | Step 3 |
| <i>Fixed Effects</i> | | | | | | |
| Intercept | 4.88** (.71) | 4.44* (1.93) | 5.65** (1.97) | .79 (.82) | -.93 (1.73) | -3.16* (1.60) |
| Age | -.00 (.01) | .00 (.02) | -.01 (.02) | .01 (.01) | .00 (.02) | -.00 (.01) |
| Sex | -.36** (.13) | -.80* (.36) | -1.03** (.33) | .27 (.15) | .33 (.32) | .58** (.19) |
| Managerial Tenure | -.00 (.00) | -.00 (.00) | .00 (.00) | -.00 (.00) | -.00 (.00) | -.00 (.00) |
| Managerial Self-Efficacy | -.15 (.14) | -.09 (.42) | .04 (.43) | .08 (.16) | .49 (.38) | 1.04** (.26) |
| Manager Identity Prominence | | -.30 (.17) | -.20 (.16) | | .44** (.15) | .08 (.11) |
| Prosocial Motivation | | .11 (.21) | -.07 (.20) | | -.20 (.19) | -.08 (.13) |
| Social Dominance Orientation | | .14 (.17) | .12 (.16) | | .13 (.15) | -.19** (.04) |
| Managerial Discretion | | -.07 (.17) | -.08 (.16) | | .16 (.15) | .04 (.15) |
| Manager Identity Prominence X Prosocial Motivation | | | -.14 (.19) | | | -.30 (.16) |
| Manager Identity Prominence X Social Dominance Orientation | | | -.06 (.22) | | | -.49** (.06) |
| Manager Identity Prominence X Managerial Discretion | | | -.62** (.19) | | | .45** (.17) |
| <i>Random Effects</i> | | | | | | |
| Superior Intercept Variance | .00 | .00 | .00 | .00 | .00 | .69 |
| Residual Variance | .64 | .89 | .67 | .85 | .72 | .00 |
| R-squared | .07 | .24 | .43 | .03 | .35 | .09 |
| Δ R-squared | - | .00 | .00 | - | .00 | .00 |
| N | 154 | 38 | 38 | 154 | 38 | 38 |

** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$

Table 9: Regression – Boundary-Spanning Behaviors

| | Boundary-spanning Behaviors | | | | | |
|--|-----------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| | Representation | | | Competition | | |
| | Step 1 | Step 2 | Step 3 | Step 1 | Step 2 | Step 3 |
| <i>Fixed Effects</i> | | | | | | |
| Intercept | 4.06** (.65) | 4.18** (.67) | 4.28** (.68) | 1.08 (.76) | 1.12 (.82) | 1.11 (.84) |
| Age | -.02** (.01) | -.02** (.01) | -.02** (.01) | .01* (.01) | .01* (.01) | .02* (.01) |
| Sex | .10 (.11) | .10 (.11) | .07 (.11) | -.03 (.13) | -.02 (.14) | -.01 (.14) |
| Managerial Tenure | -.00** (.00) | -.00** (.00) | -.00** (.00) | -.00 (.00) | -.00 (.00) | -.00 (.00) |
| Managerial Self-Efficacy | .24 (.13) | .21 (.14) | .24 (.15) | -.06 (.16) | -.09 (.17) | -.09 (.18) |
| Manager Identity Prominence | | .04 (.06) | .07 (.06) | | .02 (.07) | .01 (.01) |
| Prosocial Motivation | | -.01 (.08) | .00 (.08) | | -.03 (.09) | -.06 (.10) |
| Social Dominance Orientation | | .07 (.06) | .08 (.06) | | .07 (.07) | .06 (.08) |
| Managerial Discretion | | -.03 (.07) | -.05 (.07) | | -.01 (.08) | -.00 (.09) |
| Manager Identity Prominence X Prosocial | | | -.13 (.08) | | | -.12 (.10) |
| Manager Identity Prominence X Social | | | -.06 (.06) | | | .07 (.07) |
| Manager Identity Prominence X Managerial | | | -.08 (.07) | | | -.03 (.09) |
| <i>Random Effects</i> | | | | | | |
| Superior Intercept Variance | .08 | .10 | .13 | .20 | .18 | .22 |
| Residual Variance | .17 | .15 | .13 | .19 | .21 | .18 |
| R-squared | .27 | .28 | .31 | .05 | .07 | .09 |
| Δ R-squared | - | .00 | .00 | - | .00 | .00 |
| N | 79 | 79 | 79 | 79 | 79 | 79 |

** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$

Table 10: Summary of Results

| No. | Hypothesis | Panel | Field |
|-----|--|-------|-------|
| H1 | When managers' prosocial motivation is higher, manager identity prominence is positively associated with inclusive decisional behaviors (delegation). | Yes | No |
| H2 | When managers' prosocial motivation is higher, manager identity prominence is negatively associated with restrictive decisional behaviors (micromanagement). | No | No |
| H3 | When managers' social dominance orientation is higher, manager identity prominence is negatively associated with inclusive decisional behaviors (delegation). | No | No |
| H4 | When managers' social dominance orientation is higher, manager identity prominence is positively associated with restrictive decisional behaviors (micromanagement). | Yes | Yes |
| H5 | When managers' prosocial motivation is higher, manager identity prominence is negatively associated with inclusive boundary spanning behaviors (representation). | No | No |
| H6 | When managers' prosocial motivation is higher, manager identity prominence is positively associated with restrictive boundary spanning behaviors (competition). | Yes | No |
| H7 | When managers' social dominance orientation is higher, manager identity prominence is negatively associated with inclusive boundary spanning behaviors (representation). | No | No |
| H8 | When managers' social dominance orientation is higher, manager identity prominence is positively associated with restrictive boundary spanning behaviors (competition). | Yes | No |
| H9 | Manager identity prominence is associated negatively with inclusive decisional behaviors (delegation) only in contexts with higher managerial discretion. | - | Yes |
| H10 | Manager identity prominence is associated positively with restrictive decisional behaviors (micromanagement) only in contexts with higher managerial discretion. | - | Yes |
| H11 | Manager identity prominence is associated positively with inclusive boundary spanning behaviors (representation) only in contexts with lower managerial discretion. | - | No |
| H12 | Manager identity prominence is associated positively with restrictive boundary spanning behaviors (competition) only in contexts with higher managerial discretion. | - | No |

Figure 1: Model

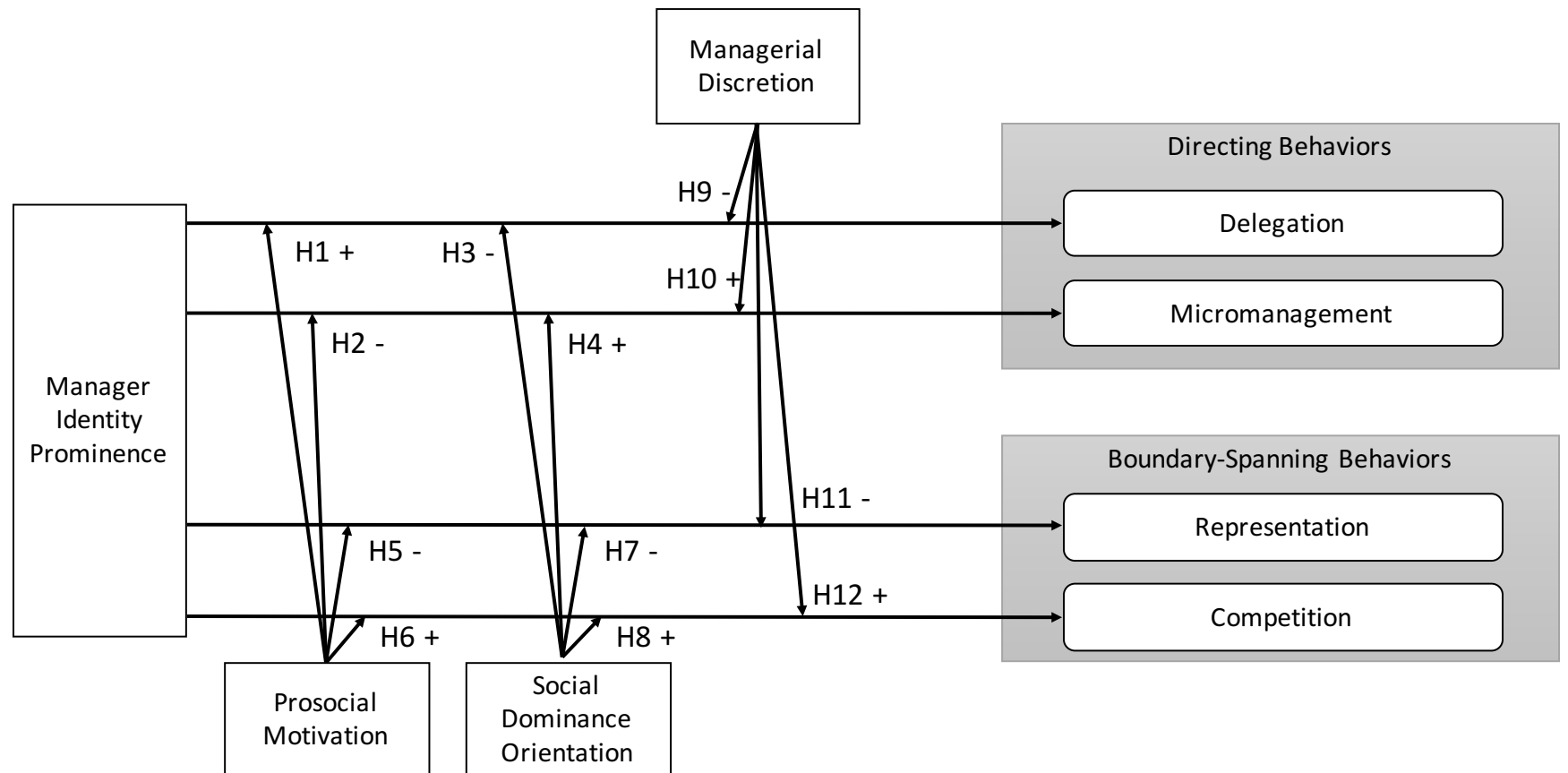
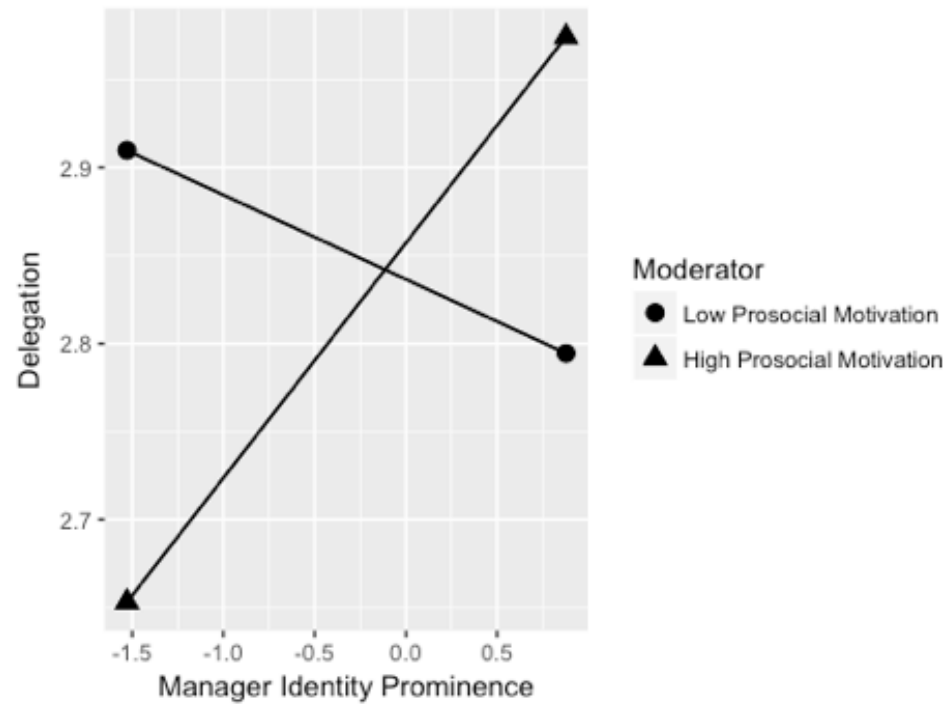
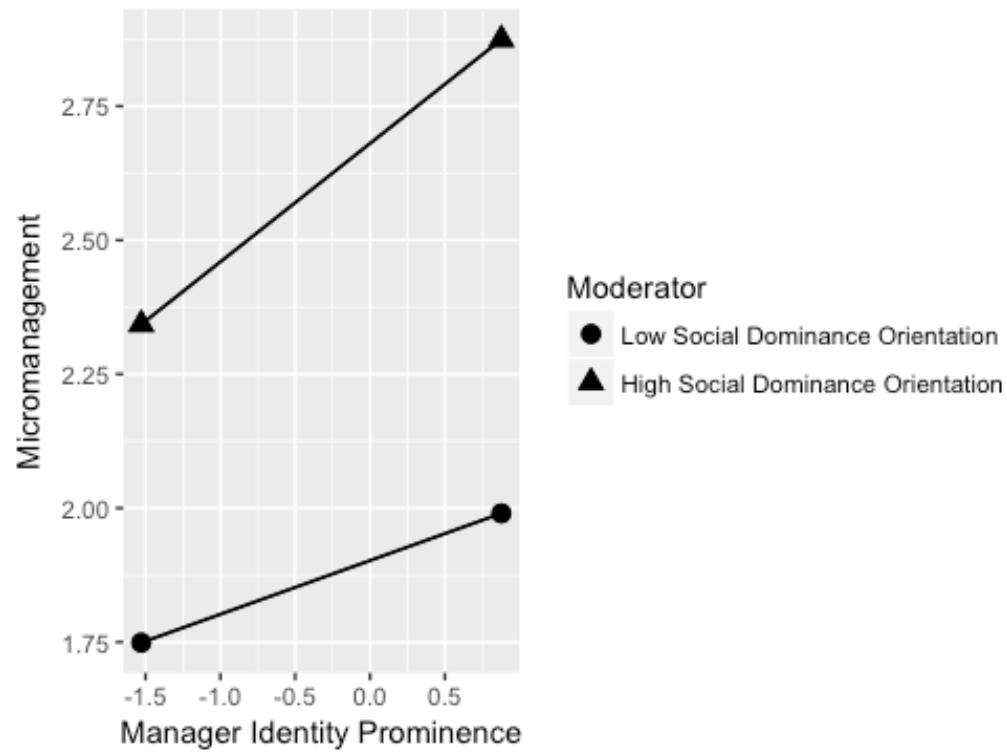


Figure 2: Study 1 —Manager Panel: Interaction Plot: Interaction of Manager Identity Prominence and Prosocial Motivation on Delegation



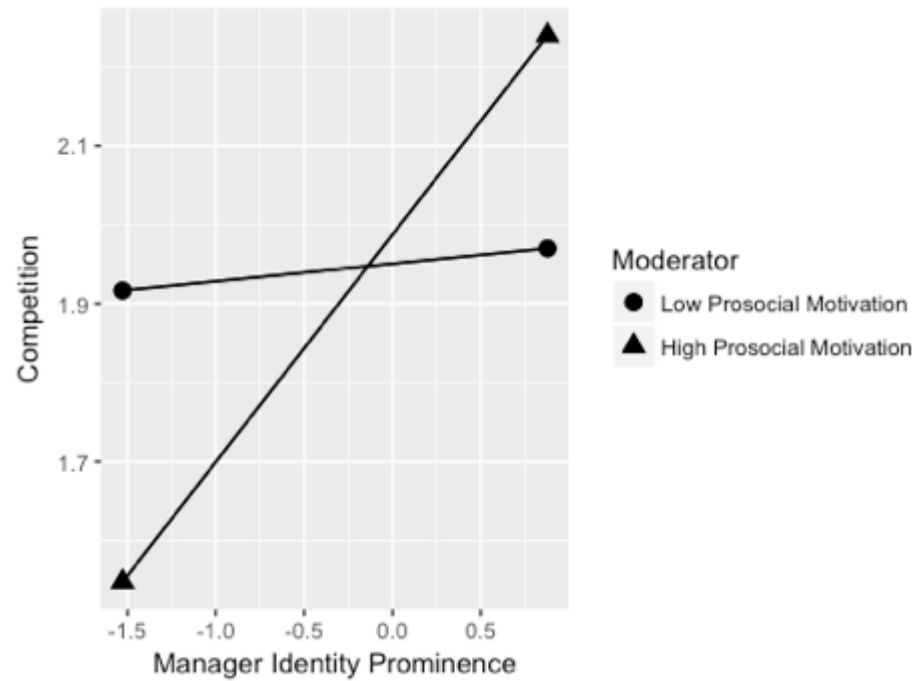
| Simple Slopes Analysis | Estimate | S.E. | p-value |
|----------------------------------|----------|------|---------|
| Low Prosocial Motivation (-1SD) | -.05 | .07 | .48 |
| High Prosocial Motivation (+1SD) | .13 | .06 | .02 |

Figure 3: Study 1 —Manager Panel: Interaction Plot: Interaction of Manager Identity Prominence and Social Dominance Orientation on Micromanagement



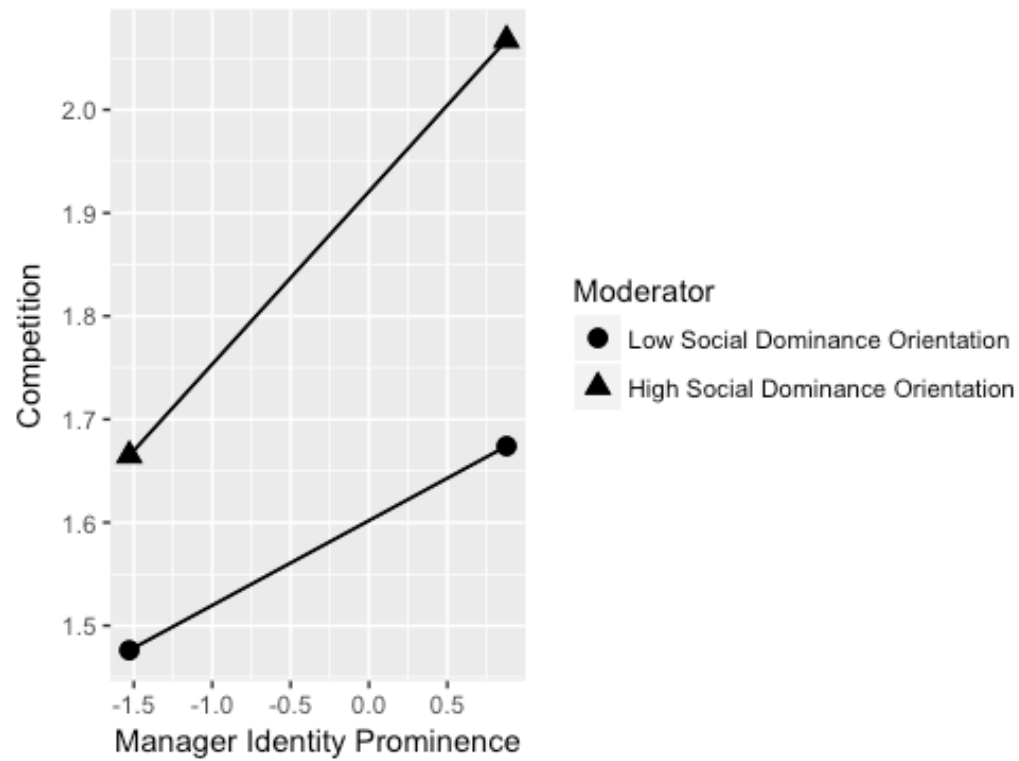
| Simple Slopes Analysis | Estimate | S.E. | p-value |
|--|----------|------|---------|
| Low Social Dominance Orientation (-1SD) | .10 | .08 | .24 |
| High Social Dominance Orientation (+1SD) | .22 | .07 | .00 |

Figure 4: Study 1 — Manager Panel: Interaction Plot: Interaction of Manager Identity Prominence and Prosocial Motivation on Competition



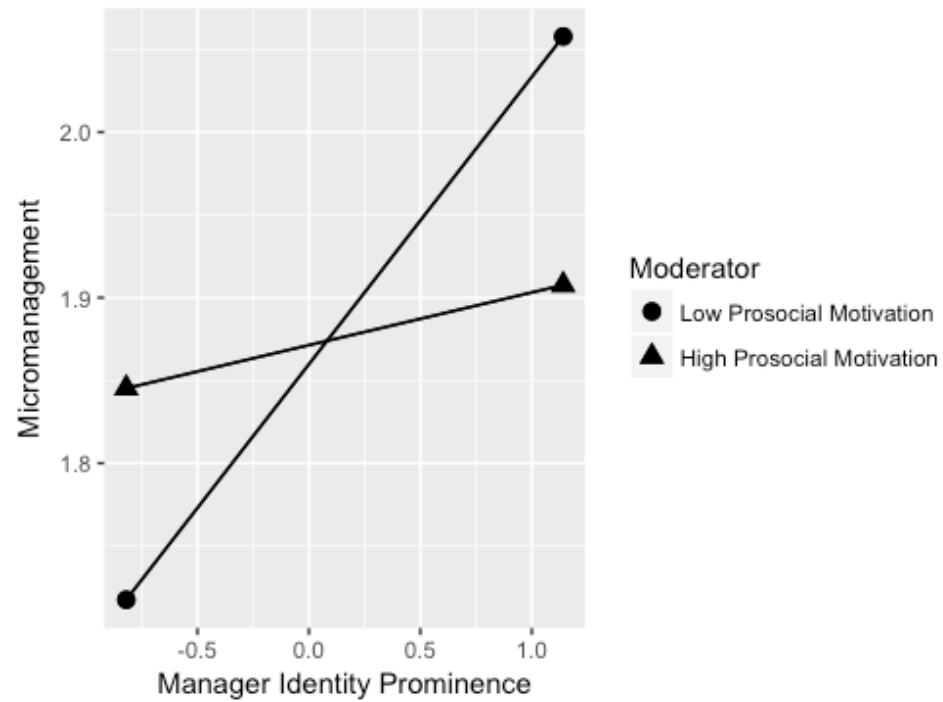
| Simple Slopes Analysis | Estimate | S.E. | p-value |
|----------------------------------|----------|------|---------|
| Low Prosocial Motivation (-1SD) | .02 | .07 | .76 |
| High Prosocial Motivation (+1SD) | .29 | .06 | .00 |

Figure 5: Study 1 —Manager Panel: Interaction Plot: Interaction of Manager Identity Prominence and Social Dominance Orientation on Competition



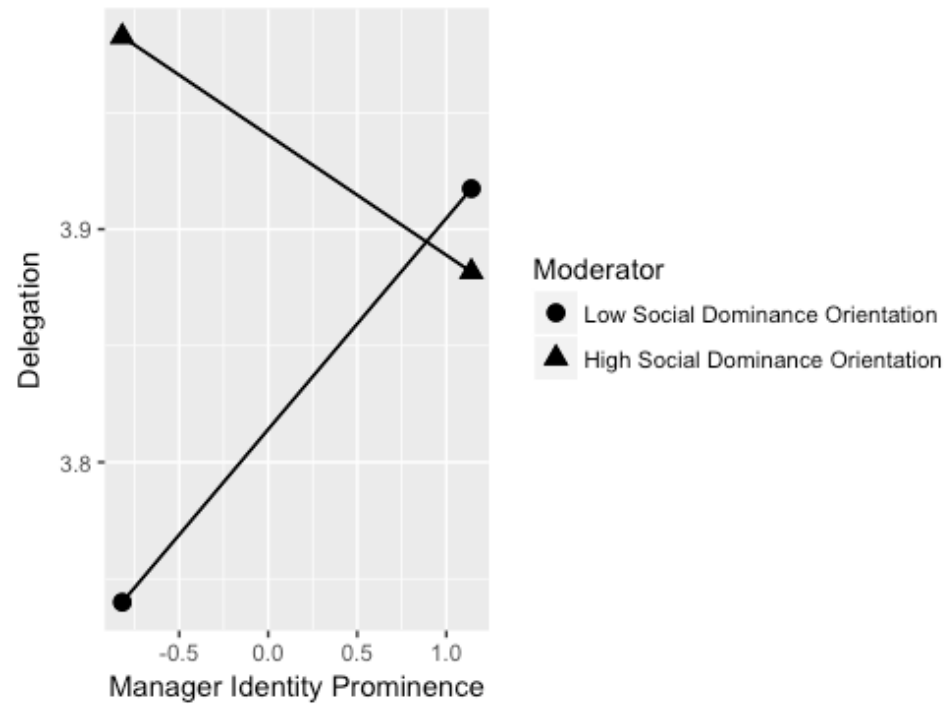
| Simple Slopes Analysis | Estimate | S.E. | p-value |
|--|----------|------|---------|
| Low Social Dominance Orientation (-1SD) | .08 | .07 | .22 |
| High Social Dominance Orientation (+1SD) | .17 | .06 | .00 |

Figure 6: Study 2—Field Study: Interaction Plot: Interaction of Manager Identity Prominence and Prosocial Motivation on Micromanagement



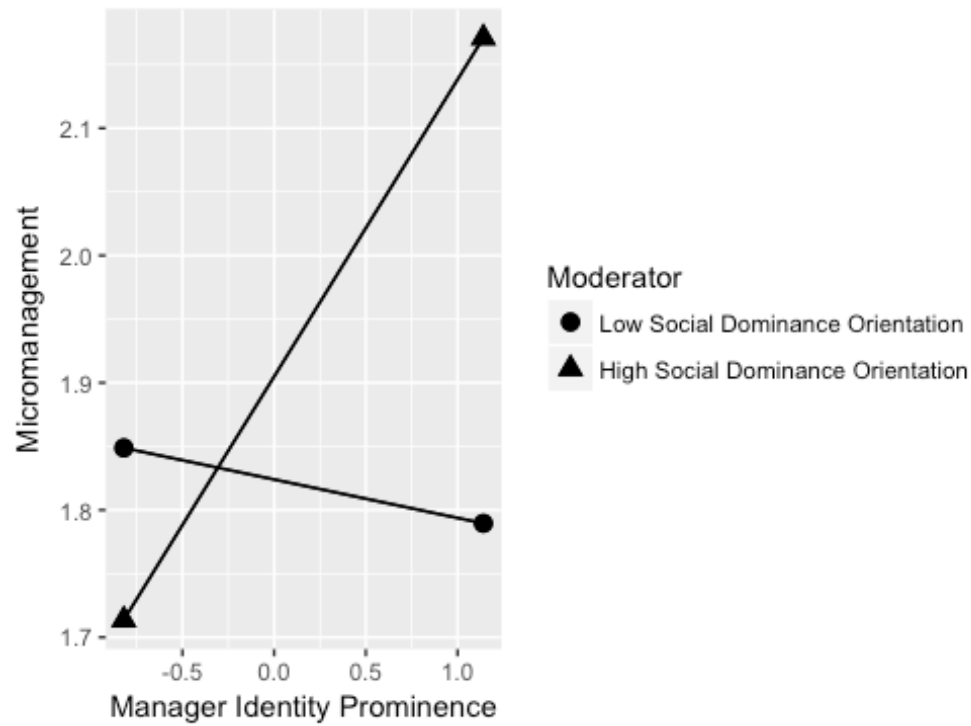
| Simple Slopes Analysis | Estimate | S.E. | p-value |
|----------------------------------|----------|------|---------|
| Low Prosocial Motivation (-1SD) | .17 | .10 | .07 |
| High Prosocial Motivation (+1SD) | .03 | .10 | .74 |

Figure 7: Study 2—Field Study: Interaction Plot: Interaction of Manager Identity Prominence and Social Dominance Orientation on Delegation



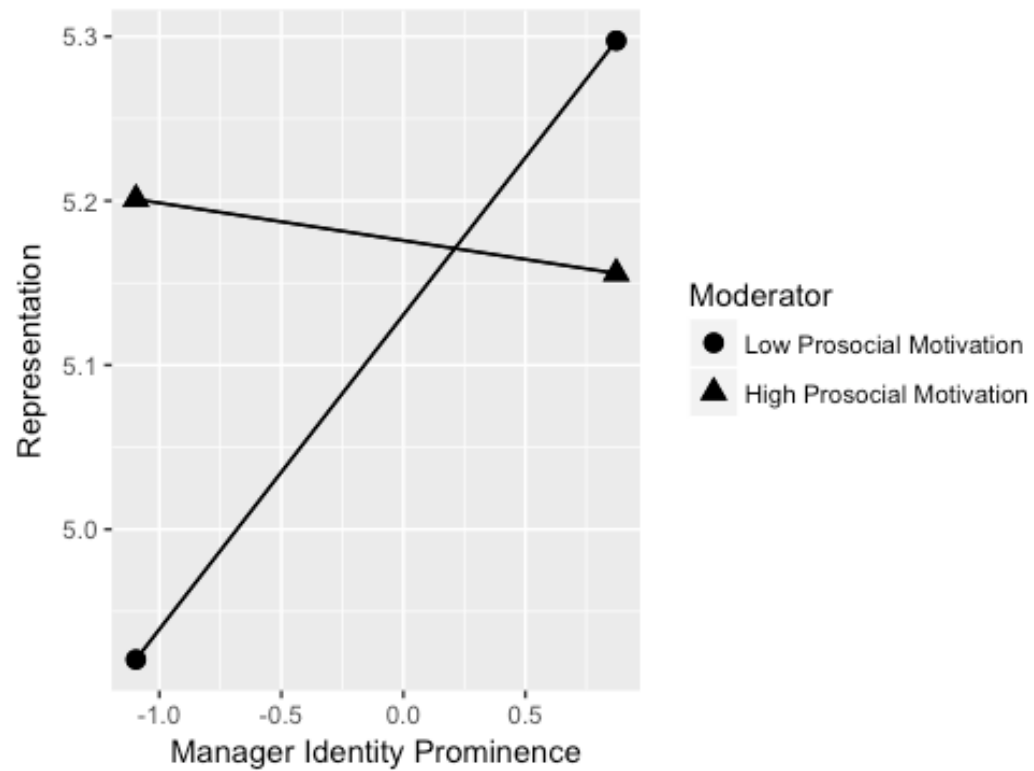
| Simple Slopes Analysis | Estimate | S.E. | p-value |
|--|----------|------|---------|
| Low Social Dominance Orientation (-1SD) | .09 | .08 | .28 |
| High Social Dominance Orientation (+1SD) | -.05 | .08 | .55 |

Figure 8: Study 2—Field Study: Interaction Plot: Interaction of Manager Identity Prominence and Social Dominance Orientation on Micromanagement



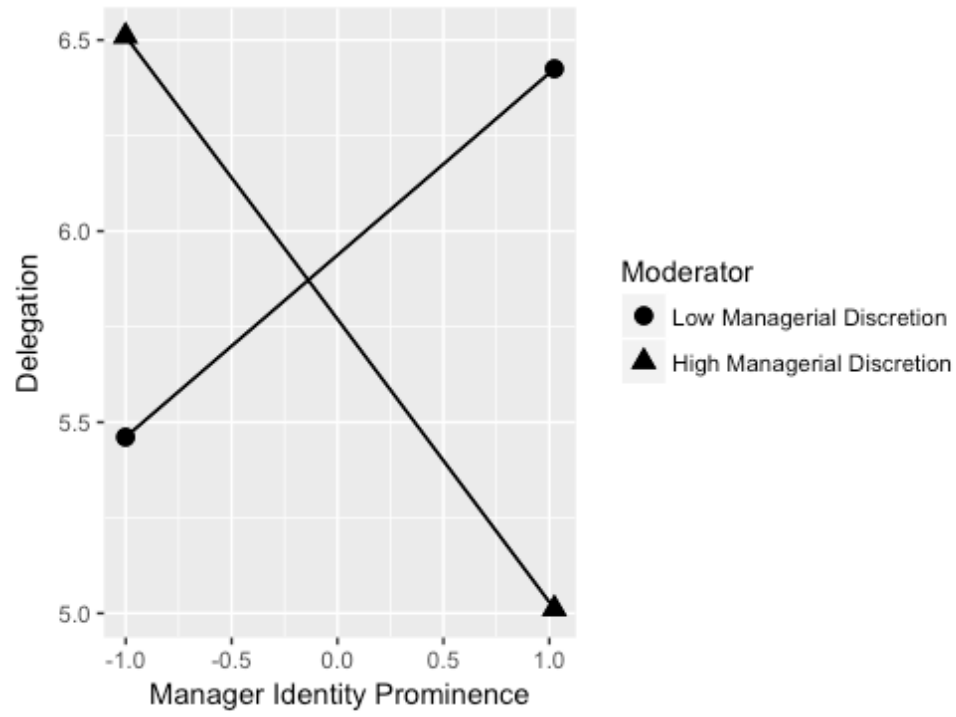
| Simple Slopes Analysis | Estimate | S.E. | p-value |
|--|----------|------|---------|
| Low Social Dominance Orientation (-1SD) | -.03 | .10 | .75 |
| High Social Dominance Orientation (+1SD) | .23 | .10 | .02 |

Figure 9: Study 2—Field Study: Interaction Plot: Interaction of Manager Identity Prominence and Prosocial Motivation on Representation



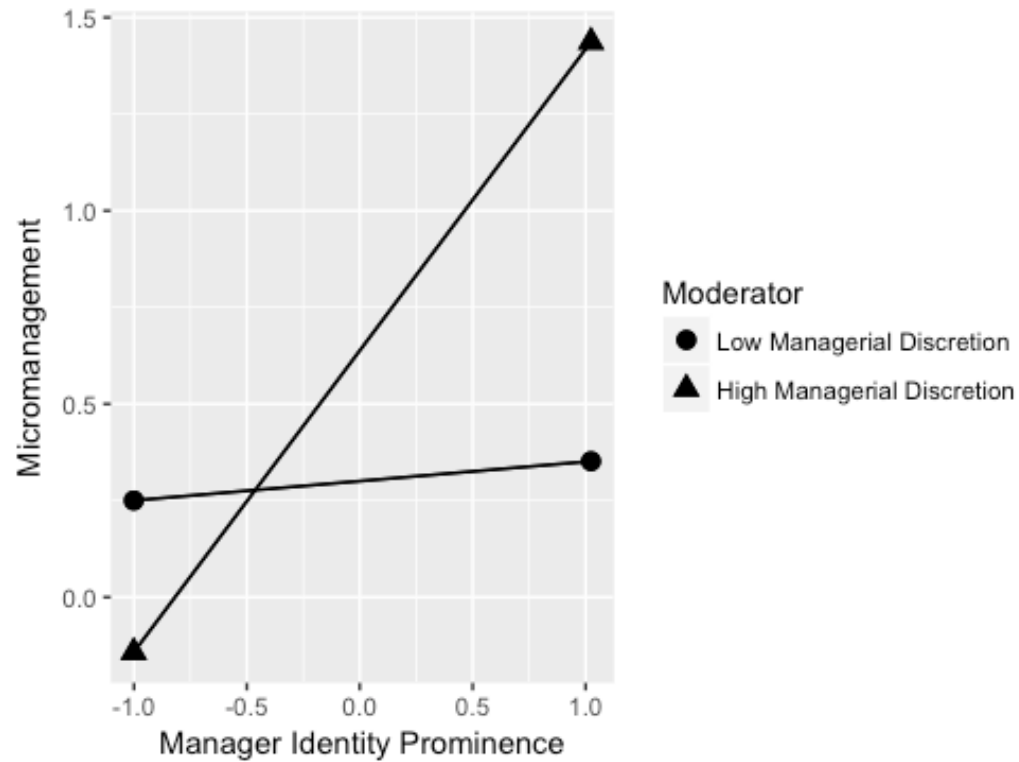
| Simple Slopes Analysis | Estimate | S.E. | p-value |
|----------------------------------|----------|------|---------|
| Low Prosocial Motivation (-1SD) | .19 | .10 | .06 |
| High Prosocial Motivation (+1SD) | -.02 | .08 | .78 |

Figure 10: Study 2—Field Study: Interaction Plot: Interaction of Manager Identity Prominence and Managerial Discretion on Delegation



| Simple Slopes Analysis | Estimate | S.E. | p-value |
|-----------------------------------|----------|------|---------|
| Low Managerial Discretion (-1SD) | .48 | .25 | .07 |
| High Managerial Discretion (+1SD) | -.74 | .18 | .00 |

Figure 11: Study 2—Field Study: Interaction Plot: Interaction of Manager Identity Prominence and Managerial Discretion on Micromanagement



| Simple Slopes Analysis | Estimate | S.E. | p-value |
|-----------------------------------|----------|------|---------|
| Low Managerial Discretion (-1SD) | .05 | .26 | .85 |
| High Managerial Discretion (+1SD) | .78 | .19 | .00 |

Appendices

APPENDIX 1: COMPARISON OF MANAGER IDENTITY PROMINENCE WITH RELATED CONSTRUCTS

| Construct | Definition | Manager identity prominence is... |
|---|--|---|
| Managerial self-efficacy (Fast et al., 2014) | Perceived ability to meet the competence expectations associated with managerial role | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Different - Related to prioritization and preference rather than ability - Associated with consistency rather than confidence |
| Motivation to manage (Miner, 1978) | Desire to execute role requirements of a (traditional) managerial role in bureaucratic organizations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Broader - Focused on representativeness of manager identity to self, rather than on domination or advancement |
| (Manager) Role identification (Ashforth, 2001) | Definition of the self (at least partly) in terms of the perceived role | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A possible antecedent - Focused on representativeness rather than self-definition or categorization as a manager |

APPENDIX 2: PROPOSED LIST OF ITEMS FOR MANAGER IDENTITY PROMINENCE

The following is the original list of items generated to capture manager identity prominence. The items were partly generated based on the definition of the constructs from McCall and Simmons (1978) and Stryker and Serpe (1994). Other items were included from several sources which captured identity either to represent prominence or identity salience (Day & Sin, 2011; McCall & Simmons, 1978; Pope & Hall, 2014). Asterisked items represent items selected for the measure development expert rating evaluation

Respondents were first provided with a definition of the constructs, and then prompted with the following stem:

Please rate each of the items below on a scale of 1 (= *highly unlikely*) to 7 (= *highly likely*) of how well they represent the constructs (defined above) in the columns.

1. Being a manager comes naturally to me.
2. Being a manager is a prominent part of who I am.
3. I am a manager
4. I embody the characteristics of a manager.
5. I feel comfortable being a manager across situations and contexts.
6. I find myself playing the role of a manager across situations and contexts.
7. I would feel a loss if I were forced to give up being a manager.
8. If I had to describe myself to others, I would include the word manager
9. The managerial role is a dominant aspect of who I am.
10. When introducing myself to a new employee, I would refer to myself as a manager.
11. A major role at work is managing my team.
12. Being a manager is most representative of who I am at work. *
13. I am habituated to think like a manager.
14. I find myself playing the role of a manager across work contexts.

15. I respond to most issues wearing a manager hat.
16. In most situations, being a manager is my automatic response.
17. Managing is the most significant aspect of my work identity.
18. More often than not, I find myself thinking like a manager.
19. My manager role is more prominent at work than my role as an individual contributor.
20. When I introduce myself to others in the work context, my manager role would form a significant part of my description.
21. When I introduce myself to others outside work, my manager role would form a prominent part of my description.
22. When I make decisions, my manager identity is the most dominant.
23. When I think of myself at work, being a manager is the most substantial part of my identity.
24. I would be at a loss if I were to stop being a manager.
25. I find myself thinking like a manager across work situations.
26. Being a manager is representative of who I am.
27. My manager role is more important to me at work, than my role as an individual contributor. *
28. At work, I prefer to think of myself more as a manager than as a member of a team. *
29. At work, I like to think of myself more as a manager than as an employee in my organization. *
30. Being a manager is the most significant aspect of my ideal work identity. *
31. When I think of myself at work, being a manager is the most substantial part of my identity. *
32. In all kinds of work settings, I automatically tend to think like a manager.
33. I approach most situations wearing a manager hat.
34. More often than not, my managerial role is at the top of my mind.
35. Thinking like a manager happens to me spontaneously in most settings.

36. I often play the role of a manager across work contexts.

APPENDIX 3: FINAL MEASURE OF MANAGER IDENTITY PROMINENCE

Respondents were provided with the following stem:

This section refers to your role as a MANAGER in your organization.

Please rate the extent to which you agree with the following statements (1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = somewhat disagree; 4 = neither agree nor disagree; 5 = somewhat agree; 6 = agree; 7 = strongly agree).

1. Being a manager is more representative of who I am at work compared to being an individual employee.
2. At work, I like to think of myself more as a manager than as a member of the organization.
3. At work, I prefer to think of myself more as a manager than as a member of a team.
4. Being a manager is a more significant aspect of who I am at work than being a member of my profession.
5. At work, being a manager is more important to me than being an individual contributor.
6. Being a manager is a more substantial part of who I am at work than being a member of my function or department.

APPENDIX 4: FULL LIST OF MEASURES

Items will be rated on 7-point agreement scales unless specified otherwise.

Reverse-coded items are marked “R”.

Manager identity centrality (Callero, 1985; Pope & Hall, 2014)

1. Being a manager is central to who I am as a person.
2. My manager role is essential to my sense of self.
3. The manager role is a big part of my life.
4. Being a manager is an important aspect of who I am.
5. If I could not be a manager, I would lose an important part of my self.
6. Being a manager is a significant part of who I am.

Manager identity salience (Developed measure)

1. I find myself thinking like a manager across work situations.
2. I often play the role of a manager across work contexts.
3. I approach most situations wearing a manager hat.
4. In all kinds of work settings, I automatically tend to think like a manager.
5. More often than not, my managerial role influences how I see most situations.
6. Thinking like a manager happens to me spontaneously in most settings.

Managerial role identification (Adapted from Ashforth & Mael, 1989)

1. When someone criticizes managers, it feels like a personal insult.

2. I am very interested in what others think about managers.
3. When I talk about managers I usually say “we” rather than “they”.
4. Managers’ successes are my successes.
5. When someone praises managers, it feels like a personal compliment.
6. If a story in the media criticized managers, I would feel embarrassed.

Managerial self-efficacy (Adapted from Fast et al., 2014)

Please respond to these items as they relate to your role as a manager.

7. I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.
8. When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.
9. In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.
10. I believe I can succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind.
11. I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.
12. I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks.
13. Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.
14. Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.

Prosocial motivation (Grant, 2008)

Why are you motivated to do your work?

1. Because I care about benefiting others through my work.
2. Because I want to help others through my work.
3. Because I want to have positive impact on others.
4. Because it is important to me to do good for others through my work.

Social dominance orientation (Sidanius et al., 1996)

1. Some groups of people are just more worthy than others.
2. In getting what your group wants, it is sometimes necessary to use force against other groups.
3. Superior groups should dominate inferior groups.
4. To get ahead in life, it is sometimes necessary to step on other groups.
5. If certain groups of people stayed in their place, we would have fewer problems
6. It's probably a good thing that certain groups are at the top and other groups are at the bottom.
7. Inferior groups should stay in their place.
8. Sometimes other groups must be kept in their place.
9. It would be good if all groups could be equal. R
10. Group equality should be our ideal. R
11. All groups should be given an equal change in life. R
12. We should do what we can to equalize conditions for different groups. R
13. Increased social equality. R
14. We would have fewer problems if we treated different groups more equally. R
15. We should strive to make incomes more equal. R
16. No one group should dominate in society. R

Managerial discretion (Adapted from Preston et al., 2008)

1. Managers are free to choose strategic options as the business leader of their work unit / department.
2. The strategic actions that managers can take within the work unit are not limited.

3. Managers are authorized to decide which courses of action should be taken to impact work unit outcomes.
4. Managers have the authority to decide which initiatives should be pursued to meet the business needs.
5. Managers have the latitude to determine how to invest new resources.

Inclusive decision-making behaviors: Delegation (Adapted from Schriesheim et al., 1998)

1. I / this manager doesn't require that subordinates get his/her input or approval before making decisions.
2. I / this manager lets his/her subordinates make decisions by themselves, without consulting him/her.
3. I / this manager gives subordinates the authority to make their own decisions, without any input from him/her.
4. Subordinates ask me / this manager for information and then make job-related decisions on their own.
5. I / this manager gives subordinates areas where they decide on their own, after first getting information from him/her.
6. I / this manager permits his/her subordinates to get needed information from him/her and then make their own decisions.

Restrictive decision-making behaviors: Micromanagement (Adapted from Detert & Edmondson, 2011)

1. I get [This manager is likely to be] offended when others suggest changes to the processes and routines that I [he/she] created.

2. Those who challenge existing processes that I had established are questioning my wisdom [It's risky to challenge existing processes established or supported by my manager, because it may be seen as questioning his/her wisdom].
3. I get offended when subordinates speak up to suggest a better way of working on a process or product I am in charge of [Speaking up to suggest a better way of working on a process or product of which my manager is in charge, is likely to offend him/her].
4. I take it personally when subordinates question procedures developed by me [It is not good to question routines developed by my manager, as he/she is likely to take it personally].

Inclusive boundary-spanning behaviors: Representation (Adapted from Ancona & Caldwell, 1992; and Borman & Brush, 1999)

1. I [This manager] defend[s] and advocate[s] on behalf of the team to other teams within the organization.
2. I [This manager] act[s] as a representative of the team with other teams of the organization.
3. I [This manager] act[s] to get support for the team's decisions from other teams in the organization.
4. I [This manager] advocate[s] on behalf of the team to others in the organizational environment (e.g. internal and external stakeholders)
5. I [This manager] maintain[s] good team image to those outside the team.
6. I [This manager] deal[s] with problems concerning stakeholders external to the team.

Restrictive boundary-spanning behaviors: Competition (Adapted from Rus et al., 2010)

1. I have [This manager has] negotiated resources for my [our] team that were substantially higher than what other teams received.
2. I have [This manager has] taken more credit for my [our] team, instead of giving appropriate credit to other teams or individuals for jobs requiring a lot of time and effort.
3. I have [This manager has] shifted the blame for a mistake made by me [him/her] or one of my [his/her] subordinates onto one of the other teams in the organization.
4. I have [This manager has] refused to take on additional work for my [our] team, although this would have helped the organization meet its goals.

Overall Managerial Performance (Tsui, 1984)

1. Overall, to what extent do you feel this manager is performing his or her job the way you would like it to be performed?
2. To what extent has he or she met your expectations in his or her managerial roles and responsibilities?
3. If you had your way, to what extent would you change the manner in which he or she is doing the job?

References

- Aiken, L. S., West, S. G., & Reno, R. R. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Sage.
- Ainsworth, S., & Hardy, C. (2004). Discourse and identities. *The Sage handbook of organizational discourse*, 153-174.
- Allport, G. W. (1937). *Personality* (pp. 173-181). New York: Holt.
- Alvesson, M., & Willmott, H. (2002). Identity regulation as organizational control: Producing the appropriate individual. *Journal of management studies*, 39(5), 619-644.
- Ames, D. R., Rose, P., & Anderson, C. P. (2006). The NPI-16 as a short measure of narcissism. *Journal of research in personality*, 40(4), 440-450.
- Ancona, D. G. (1990). Outward bound: strategic for team survival in an organization. *Academy of Management journal*, 33(2), 334-365.
- Ancona, D. G., & Caldwell, D. F. (1988). Beyond task and maintenance: Defining external functions in groups. *Group & Organization Studies*, 13(4), 468-494.
- Ancona, D. G., & Caldwell, D. F. (1992a). Bridging the boundary: External activity and performance in organizational teams. *Administrative science quarterly*, 634-665.
- Ancona, D. G., & Caldwell, D. F. (1992b). Demography and design: Predictors of new product team performance. *Organization science*, 3(3), 321-341.
- Anderson, C., John, O. P., & Keltner, D. (2012). The personal sense of power. *Journal of personality*, 80(2), 313-344.
- Anteby, M., Chan, C. K., & DiBenigno, J. (2016). Three lenses on occupations and professions in organizations: Becoming, doing, and relating. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 10(1), 183-244.
- Aquino, K., Stewart, M. M., & Reed, A. (2005). How social dominance orientation and job status influence perceptions of African-American affirmative action beneficiaries. *Personnel Psychology*, 58(3), 703-744.
- Aron, A., Aron, E. N., Tudor, M., & Nelson, G. (1991). Close relationships as including other in the self. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 60(2), 241.
- Ashford, S. J., & Tsui, A. S. (1991). Self-regulation for managerial effectiveness: The role of active feedback seeking. *Academy of Management journal*, 34(2), 251-280.
- Ashforth, B. (2001). *Role transitions in organizational life: An identity-based perspective*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Ashforth, B. E. (1989). The experience of powerlessness in organizations. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes*, 43(2), 207-242.
- Ashforth, B. E., & Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and the organization. *Academy of management review*, 14(1), 20-39.
- Ashforth, B. E., Harrison, S. H., & Corley, K. G. (2008). Identification in organizations: An examination of four fundamental questions. *Journal of management*, 34(3), 325-374.

- Ashforth, B. E., Kreiner, G. E., & Fugate, M. (2000). All in a day's work: Boundaries and micro role transitions. *Academy of Management review*, 25(3), 472-491.
- Ashforth, B. E., Schinoff, B. S., & Rogers, K. M. (2016). "I identify with her," "I identify with him": Unpacking the dynamics of personal identification in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 41(1), 28-60.
- Ashforth, B. K., & Saks, A. M. (1996). Socialization tactics: Longitudinal effects on newcomer adjustment. *Academy of management Journal*, 39(1), 149-178.
- Austin, M. J., Regan, K., Gothard, S., & Carnochan, S. (2013). Becoming a manager in nonprofit human service organizations: Making the transition from specialist to generalist. *Administration in social work*, 37(4), 372-385.
- Barrick, M. R., Mount, M. K., & Gupta, R. (2003). Meta-analysis of the relationship between the five-factor model of personality and Holland's occupational types. *Personnel psychology*, 56(1), 45-74.
- Bartel, C. A. (2001). Social comparisons in boundary-spanning work: Effects of community outreach on members' organizational identity and identification. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 46(3), 379-413.
- Bartel, C. A., & Wiesenfeld, B. M. (2013). The social negotiation of group prototype ambiguity in dynamic organizational contexts. *Academy of Management Review*, 38(4), 503-524.
- Bartel, C. A., Wiesenfeld, B. M., Janardhanan, N. S., & Dow, B. (2016). Mergers and multiple identities: Consequences for knowledge sharing. *Academy of Management Meeting, August 2016*. Anaheim, CA.
- Bartel, C. A., & Dutton, J. E. (2001). Ambiguous organizational memberships: Constructing organizational identities. In M. Hogg & D. Terry (Eds), *Social identity processes in organizational contexts*. Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press, 2001, pp. 115–130.
- Bass, B. M. (1990). From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision. *Organizational dynamics*, 18(3), 19-31.
- Batson, C. D. (1987). Prosocial motivation: Is it ever truly altruistic? *Advances in experimental social psychology*, 20, 65-122.
- Baumeister, R. F., & Leary, M. R. (1995). The need to belong: desire for interpersonal attachments as a fundamental human motivation. *Psychological bulletin*, 117(3), 497-529.
- Beersma, B., & De Dreu, C. K. (2002). Integrative and distributive negotiation in small groups: Effects of task structure, decision rule, and social motive. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 87(2), 227-252.
- Benoliel, P., & Somech, A. (2015). The role of leader boundary activities in enhancing interdisciplinary team effectiveness. *Small Group Research*, 46(1), 83-124.
- Bergami, M., & Bagozzi, R. P. (2000). Self-categorization, affective commitment and group self-esteem as distinct aspects of social identity in the organization. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 39(4), 555-577.

- Blader, S. L., & Chen, Y. R. (2012). Differentiating the effects of status and power: a justice perspective. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 102(5), 994.
- Blankenship, L. V., & Miles, R. E. (1968). Organizational structure and managerial decision behavior. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 106-120.
- Blau, G. J. (1986). Job involvement and organizational commitment as interactive predictors of tardiness and absenteeism. *Journal of Management*, 12(4), 577-584.
- Borman, W. C., & Brush, D. H. (1993). More progress toward a taxonomy of managerial performance requirements. *Human performance*, 6(1), 1-21.
- Borman, W. C., Hanson, M. A., Oppler, S. H., Pulakos, E. D., & White, L. A. (1993). Role of early supervisory experience in supervisor performance. *Journal of Applied psychology*, 78(3), 443.
- Brenner, P. S., Serpe, R. T., & Stryker, S. (2014). The causal ordering of prominence and salience in identity theory: An empirical examination. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 77(3), 231-252.
- Brewer, M. B., & Gardner, W. (1996). Who is this "We"? Levels of collective identity and self representations. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 71(1), 83-93.
- Brocklehurst, M., Grey, C., & Sturdy, A. (2010). Management: The work that dares not speak its name. *Management Learning*, 41(1), 7-19.
- Brown, G., & Baer, M. (2015). Protecting the turf: The effect of territorial marking on others' creativity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 100(6), 1785.
- Brown, G., Lawrence, T. B., & Robinson, S. L. (2005). Territoriality in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 30(3), 577-594.
- Brown, M. E., Treviño, L. K., & Harrison, D. A. (2005). Ethical leadership: A social learning perspective for construct development and testing. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes*, 97(2), 117-134.
- Burke, P. J. (1991). Identity processes and social stress. *American sociological review*, 836-849.
- Burke, P. J., & Reitzes, D. C. (1981). The link between identity and role performance. *Social psychology quarterly*, 83-92.
- Burke, P. J., & Stets, J. E. (2009). *Identity theory*. Oxford University Press.
- Burke, P. J., & Tully, J. C. (1977). The measurement of role identity. *Social forces*, 55(4), 881-897.
- Burkert, M., Fischer, F. M., & Schäffer, U. (2011). Application of the controllability principle and managerial performance: The role of role perceptions. *Management Accounting Research*, 22(3), 143-159.
- Callero, P. L. (1985). Role-identity salience. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 203-215.
- Cameron, J. E. (2004). A three-factor model of social identity. *Self and identity*, 3(3), 239-262.
- Carpenter, M. A., & Golden, B. R. (1997). Perceived managerial discretion: A study of cause and effect. *Strategic Management Journal*, 187-206.

- Caza, A. (2011). Testing alternate predictions for the performance consequences of middle managers' discretion. *Human Resource Management*, 50(1), 9-28.
- Cheng, C. Y., Sanchez-Burks, J., & Lee, F. (2008). Connecting the dots within: Creative performance and identity integration. *Psychological Science*, 19(11), 1178-1184.
- Child, J. (1997). Strategic choice in the analysis of action, structure, organizations and environment: retrospect and prospect. *Organization studies*, 18(1), 43-76.
- Chong, E. (2013). Managerial competencies and career advancement: A comparative study of managers in two countries. *Journal of Business Research*, 66(3), 345-353.
- Clarke, C. A., Brown, A. D., & Hailey, V. H. (2009). Working identities? Antagonistic discursive resources and managerial identity. *Human Relations*, 62(3), 323-352.
- Conway, J. M. (1999). Distinguishing contextual performance from task performance for managerial jobs. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84(1), 3-13.
- Conway, J. M. (2000). Managerial performance development constructs and personality correlates. *Human Performance*, 13(1), 23-46.
- Cooley, C. H. (1926). The roots of social knowledge. *American Journal of Sociology*, 32(1), 59-79.
- Cooley, C. H. (1992). *Human nature and the social order*. Transaction Publishers.
- Costa, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1992). Four ways five factors are basic. *Personality and individual differences*, 13(6), 653-665.
- Côté, S., Kraus, M. W., Cheng, B. H., Oveis, C., Van der Löwe, I., Lian, H., & Keltner, D. (2011). Social power facilitates the effect of prosocial orientation on empathic accuracy. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 101(2), 217.
- Craik, K. H., Ware, A. P., Kamp, J., O'Reilly, C., Staw, B., & Zedeck, S. (2002). Explorations of construct validity in a combined managerial and personality assessment programme. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 75(2), 171-193.
- Cummin, P. C. (1967). TAT correlates of executive performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 51(1), 78.
- Cunningham, W. A., Preacher, K. J., & Banaji, M. R. (2001). Implicit attitude measures: Consistency, stability, and convergent validity. *Psychological Science*, 12(2), 163-170.
- Day, D. V., & Sin, H. P. (2011). Longitudinal tests of an integrative model of leader development: Charting and understanding developmental trajectories. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22(3), 545-560.
- Deeter-Schmelz, D. R., Kennedy, K. N., & Goebel, D. J. (2002). Understanding sales manager effectiveness: Linking attributes to sales force values. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 31(7), 617-626.
- DeGarmo, D. S. (2010). A time varying evaluation of identity theory and father involvement for full custody, shared custody, and no custody divorced fathers. *Fathering*, 8(2), 181.

- DeRue, D. S., & Ashford, S. J. (2010). Who will lead and who will follow? A social process of leadership identity construction in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 35(4), 627-647.
- Detert, J. R., & Edmondson, A. C. (2011). Implicit voice theories: Taken-for-granted rules of self-censorship at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 54(3), 461-488.
- Devillard, S., Hunt, V., & Yee, L. (2018). Still looking for room at the top: Ten years of research on women in the workplace. *McKinsey Quarterly*, March 2018.
- Dienesch, R. M., & Liden, R. C. (1986). Leader-member exchange model of leadership: A critique and further development. *Academy of management review*, 11(3), 618-634.
- Dierdorff, E. C., Rubin, R. S., & Morgeson, F. P. (2009). The milieu of managerial work: an integrative framework linking work context to role requirements. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(4), 972.
- Dineen, Brian R., Roy J. Lewicki, and Edward C. Tomlinson. "Supervisory guidance and behavioral integrity: Relationships with employee citizenship and deviant behavior." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 91, no. 3 (2006): 622.
- Dobrajska, M., Billinger, S., & Karim, S. (2015). Delegation within hierarchies: How information processing and knowledge characteristics influence the allocation of formal and real decision authority. *Organization Science*, 26(3), 687-704.
- Down, S., & Reveley, J. (2009). Between narration and interaction: Situating first-line supervisor identity work. *Human Relations*, 62(3), 379-401.
- Dragoni, L., Tesluk, P. E., Russell, J. E., & Oh, I. S. (2009). Understanding managerial development: Integrating developmental assignments, learning orientation, and access to developmental opportunities in predicting managerial competencies. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(4), 731-743.
- Druskat, V. U., & Wheeler, J. V. (2003). Managing from the boundary: The effective leadership of self-managing work teams. *Academy of Management Journal*, 46(4), 435-457.
- Dukerich Janet, M., Kramer, R., Parks, J. M., & Whetten, D. (1998). The dark side of organizational identification. In Whetten D. A. & Godfrey, P. C. (Eds), *Identity in Organizations: Building Theory through Conversations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Dukerich, J. M., Golden, B. R., & Shortell, S. M. (2002). Beauty is in the eye of the beholder: The impact of organizational identification, identity, and image on the cooperative behaviors of physicians. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 47(3), 507-533.
- Dutton, J. E., Dukerich, J. M., & Harquail, C. V. (1994). Organizational images and member identification. *Administrative science quarterly*, 239-263.
- Earley, P. C. (1993). *Culture, self-identity, and work*. Oxford University Press on Demand.
- Eberly, M. B., Johnson, M. D., Hernandez, M., & Avolio, B. J. (2013). An integrative process model of leadership: Examining loci, mechanisms, and event cycles. *American Psychologist*, 68(6), 427.
- Ebrahimi, B. P., Petrick, J. A., & Young, S. A. (2005). Managerial role motivation and role-related ethical orientation in Hong Kong. *Journal of business ethics*, 60(1), 29-45.

- Elbanna, S. (2008). Planning and participation as determinants of strategic planning effectiveness: evidence from the Arabic context. *Management Decision*, 46(5), 779-796.
- Erikson, E. (1968). *Identity, youth and crisis*. New York: Norton.
- Fabrigar, L. R., Wegener, D. T., MacCallum, R. C., & Strahan, E. J. (1999). Evaluation of the use of exploratory factor analysis in psychological research. *Psychological Methods*, 4, 272-299.
- Farmer, S. M., & Van Dyne, L. (2010). The idealized self and the situated self as predictors of employee work behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(3), 503.
- Fast, N. J., Burris, E. R., & Bartel, C. A. (2014). Managing to stay in the dark: Managerial self-efficacy, ego defensiveness, and the aversion to employee voice. *Academy of Management Journal*, 57(4), 1013-1034.
- Finkelstein, S., & Boyd, B. K. (1998). How much does the CEO matter? The role of managerial discretion in the setting of CEO compensation. *Academy of Management journal*, 41(2), 179-199.
- Finkelstein, S., & Hambrick, D. C. (1990). Top-management-team tenure and organizational outcomes: The moderating role of managerial discretion. *Administrative science quarterly*, 484-503.
- Floyd, S. W., & Wooldridge, B. (1992). Middle management involvement in strategy and its association with strategic type: A research note. *Strategic management journal*, 13(S1), 153-167.
- Galperin, B. L. (2002). Determinants of deviance in the workplace: An empirical examination in Canada and Mexico. *Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation*. Concordia University, Quebec, Canada.
- Gardner, W. L., Gabriel, S., & Lee, A. Y. (1999). "I" value freedom, but "we" value relationships: Self-construal priming mirrors cultural differences in judgment. *Psychological Science*, 10(4), 321-326.
- Gecas, V., & Seff, M. A. (1990). Social class and self-esteem: Psychological centrality, compensation, and the relative effects of work and home. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 165-173.
- George, J. M., & Zhou, J. (2001). When openness to experience and conscientiousness are related to creative behavior: an interactional approach. *Journal of applied psychology*, 86(3), 513.
- Giddens, A. (1991). *Modernity and self-identity: Self and society in the late modern age*. Stanford University Press.
- Giessner, S. R., van Knippenberg, D., van Ginkel, W., & Sleebos, E. (2013). Team-oriented leadership: The interactive effects of leader group prototypicality, accountability, and team identification. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 98(4), 658.
- Goffman, E. (1959). *The presentation of self in everyday life*. Garden city, NY: Doubleday Anchor.
- Gorsuch, R. (1983). *Factor analysis*. Hillsdale, NJ: L. Erlbaum Associates.

- Grant, A. M. (2007). Relational job design and the motivation to make a prosocial difference. *Academy of Management Review*, 32: 393-417.
- Grant, A. M. (2008). Does intrinsic motivation fuel the prosocial fire? Motivational synergy in predicting persistence, performance, and productivity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93: 48-58.
- Grant, A. M. (2009). Putting self-interest out of business? Contributions and unanswered questions from use-inspired research on prosocial motivation. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 2(1), 94-98.
- Grant, A. M. 2012. Leading with meaning: Beneficiary contact, prosocial impact, and the performance effects of transformational leadership. *Academy of Management Journal*, 55: 458-476.
- Grant, A. M., & Berry, J. W. (2011). The necessity of others is the mother of invention: Intrinsic and prosocial motivations, perspective taking, and creativity. *Academy of Management Journal*, 54(1), 73-96.
- Grant, A. M., & Sumanth, J. J. (2009). Mission possible? The performance of prosocially motivated employees depends on manager trustworthiness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(4), 927.
- Grant, A. M., & Wrzesniewski, A. (2010). I won't let you down... or will I? Core self-evaluations, other-orientation, anticipated guilt and gratitude, and job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(1), 108.
- Gray, S. M., Knight, A. P., & Baer, M. (2015, January). Psychological ownership and the transition from solo entrepreneur to new venture team. In *Academy of Management Proceedings* (Vol. 2015, No. 1, p. 13055). Academy of Management.
- Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1980). *Work redesign*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Hallier, J. (2009). Rhetoric but whose reality? The influence of employability messages on employee mobility tactics and work group identification. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 20(4), 846-868.
- Hambrick, D. C., & Abrahamson, E. (1995). Assessing managerial discretion across industries: A multimethod approach. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38(5), 1427-1441.
- Hambrick, D. C., & Mason, P. A. (1984). Upper echelons: The organization as a reflection of its top managers. *Academy of management review*, 9(2), 193-206.
- Hambrick, D. C., Geletkanycz, M. A., & Fredrickson, J. W. (1993). Top executive commitment to the status quo: Some tests of its determinants. *Strategic Management Journal*, 14(6), 401-418.
- Handgraaf, M. J., Van Dijk, E., Vermunt, R. C., Wilke, H. A., & De Dreu, C. K. (2008). Less power or powerless? Egocentric empathy gaps and the irony of having little versus no power in social decision making. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 95(5), 1136.

- Haselhuhn, M. P., Wong, E. M., & Ormiston, M. E. (2017). With great power comes shared responsibility: Psychological power and the delegation of authority. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 108, 1-4.
- Heneman, H. G. (1974). Comparisons of self-and superior ratings of managerial performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 59(5), 638.
- Hill, L. A. (1992). *Becoming a manager: Mastery of a new identity*. Harvard Business School Press.
- Hinkin, T. R. (1998). A brief tutorial on the development of measures for use in survey questionnaires. *Organizational Research Methods*, 1(1), 104-121.
- Hoang, H., & Gimeno, J. (2010). Becoming a founder: How founder role identity affects entrepreneurial transitions and persistence in founding. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 25(1), 41-53.
- Hobert, R., & Dunnette, M. D. (1967). Development of moderator variables to enhance the prediction of managerial effectiveness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 51(1), 50.
- Hoffman, B. J., Woehr, D. J., Maldagen-Youngjohn, R., & Lyons, B. D. (2011). Great man or great myth? A quantitative review of the relationship between individual differences and leader effectiveness. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 84(2), 347-381.
- Hogan, J., & Holland, B. (2003). Using theory to evaluate personality and job-performance relations: a socioanalytic perspective.
- Hogg, M. A. (2001). A social identity theory of leadership. *Personality and social psychology review*, 5(3), 184-200.
- Hogg, M. A., Terry, D. J., & White, K. M. (1995). A tale of two theories: A critical comparison of identity theory with social identity theory. *Social psychology quarterly*, 255-269.
- Holmes, J. G., Ellard, J. H., & Lamm, H. (1986). Boundary roles and intergroup conflict. In Worchel, S. & Austin, W. G. (Eds.) *Psychology of Intergroup Relations*. Chicago, IL: Nelson-Hall.
- Hosie, P., Willemyns, M., & Sevastos, P. (2012). The impact of happiness on managers' contextual and task performance. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 50(3), 268-287.
- Hu, J., Jiang, K., Mo, S., Chen, H., & Shi, J. (2016). The motivational antecedents and performance consequences of corporate volunteering: When do employees volunteer and when does volunteering help versus harm work performance? *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 137, 99-111.
- Hunt, S. A., & Benford, R. D. (1994). Identity talk in the peace and justice movement. *Journal of contemporary ethnography*, 22(4), 488-517.
- Ibarra, H. (1999). Provisional selves: Experimenting with image and identity in professional adaptation. *Administrative science quarterly*, 44(4), 764-791.
- Islam, G., & Zyphur, M. J. (2005). Power, Voice, and Hierarchy: Exploring the Antecedents of Speaking Up in Groups. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, 9(2), 93.

- James, W. (1890/1923). *The Principles of Psychology*. New York: Holt.
- Johnson, R. E., Venus, M., Lanaj, K., Mao, C., & Chang, C. H. (2012). Leader identity as an antecedent of the frequency and consistency of transformational, consideration, and abusive leadership behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97(6), 1262-1272.
- Joshi, P. D., & Fast, N. J. (2013). Power and reduced temporal discounting. *Psychological Science*, 24(4), 432-438.
- Kanungo, R. N., & Mendonca, M. (1996). *Ethical dimensions of leadership*. Sage.
- Karmel, B., & Egan, D. M. (1976). Managerial performance: A new look at underlying dimensionality. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 15(2), 322-334.
- Korman, A. K. (1968). The prediction of managerial performance: A review. *Personnel Psychology*, 21(3), 295-322.
- Koveshnikov, A., Vaara, E., & Ehrnrooth, M. (2016). Stereotype-based managerial identity work in multinational corporations. *Organization Studies*, 37(9), 1353-1379.
- Kunda, Z. (1992). Can dissonance theory do it all?. *Psychological Inquiry*, 3(4), 337-339.
- Kuratko, D. F., Ireland, R. D., Covin, J. G., & Hornsby, J. S. (2005). A Model of Middle-Level Managers' Entrepreneurial Behavior. *Entrepreneurship theory and practice*, 29(6), 699-716.
- Laing, R. D. (1961). *Self and others*. London: Penguin.
- Lanaj, K., Johnson, R. E., & Wang, M. (2016). When lending a hand depletes the will: The daily costs and benefits of helping. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 101(8), 1097.
- Langley, A., Golden-Biddle, K., Reay, T., Denis, J. L., Hébert, Y., Lamothe, L., & Gervais, J. (2012). Identity struggles in merging organizations: Renegotiating the sameness–difference dialectic. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 48(2), 135-167.
- Leana, C. R. (1986). Predictors and consequences of delegation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 29(4), 754-774.
- Leana, C. R. (1987). Power relinquishment versus power sharing: Theoretical clarification and empirical comparison of delegation and participation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 72(2), 228.
- Leana, C., Appelbaum, E., & Shevchuk, I. (2009). Work process and quality of care in early childhood education: The role of job crafting. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(6), 1169-1192.
- Levenson, A. R., Van der Stede, W. A., & Cohen, S. G. (2006). Measuring the relationship between managerial competencies and performance. *Journal of Management*, 32(3), 360-380.
- Lewis, K. 2003. Measuring transactive memory systems in the field: Scale development and validation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88: 587-604.
- Linville, P. W. (1987). Self-complexity as a cognitive buffer against stress-related illness and depression. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52(4), 663.

- Lobel, S. A., & Clair, L. S. (1992). Effects of family responsibilities, gender, and career identity salience on performance outcomes. *Academy of management journal*, 35(5), 1057-1069.
- Loewenstein, G., & Small, D. A. (2007). The Scarecrow and the Tin Man: The vicissitudes of human sympathy and caring. *Review of General Psychology*, 11(2), 112.
- Lounsbury, J. W., Sundstrom, E. D., Gibson, L. W., Loveland, J. M., & Drost, A. W. (2016). Core personality traits of managers. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 31(2), 434-450.
- Luhtanen, R., & Crocker, J. (1992). A collective self-esteem scale: Self-evaluation of one's social identity. *Personality and social psychology bulletin*, 18(3), 302-318.
- Mael, F., & Ashforth, B. E. (1992). Alumni and their alma mater: A partial test of the reformulated model of organizational identification. *Journal of organizational Behavior*, 13(2), 103-123.
- Mahoney, T. A., Jerdee, T. H., & Carroll, S. J. (1965). The job (s) of management. *Industrial Relations: A Journal of Economy and Society*, 4(2), 97-110.
- Makhija, M. V., & Stewart, A. C. (2002). The effect of national context on perceptions of risk: A comparison of planned versus free-market managers. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 33(4), 737-756.
- Marcus, B., Goffin, R. D., Johnston, N. G., & Rothstein, M. G. (2007). Personality and cognitive ability as predictors of typical and maximum managerial performance. *Human performance*, 20(3), 275-285.
- Marrone, J. A. (2010). Team boundary spanning: A multilevel review of past research and proposals for the future. *Journal of Management*, 36, 911-940.
- Marrone, J. A., Tesluk, P. E., & Carson, J. B. (2007). A multilevel investigation of antecedents and consequences of team member boundary-spanning behavior. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50(6), 1423-1439.
- Massey, R. F., & Abu-Baker, K. (2009). A systemic framework for forgiveness, reconciliation, and peace: Interconnecting psychological and social processes. In *Forgiveness and reconciliation* (pp. 11-32). Springer, New York, NY.
- Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, F. D. (1995). An integrative model of organizational trust. *Academy of management review*, 20(3), 709-734.
- McAdams, D. P. (1996). Personality, modernity, and the storied self: A contemporary framework for studying persons. *Psychological inquiry*, 7(4), 295-321.
- McCall, G. J., & Simmons, J. L. (1966/1978). *Identities and interactions: An examination of human associations in everyday life*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- McClelland, D. C. (1975). *Power: The inner experience*. Irvington.
- McClelland, P. L., Liang, X., & Barker III, V. L. (2010). CEO commitment to the status quo: Replication and extension using content analysis. *Journal of Management*, 36(5), 1251-1277.
- McGrath, J. E., Martin, J. M., & Kulka, R. A. (1982). *Judgment calls in research*. Sage.
- Mead, G. H. (1934). *Mind, self and society*. University of Chicago Press.: Chicago.

- Miller, D., Kets de Vries, M. F., & Toulouse, J. M. (1982). Top executive locus of control and its relationship to strategy-making, structure, and environment. *Academy of Management journal*, 25(2), 237-253.
- Minbashian, A., Bright, J. E., & Bird, K. D. (2009). Complexity in the relationships among the subdimensions of extraversion and job performance in managerial occupations. *Journal of occupational and organizational psychology*, 82(3), 537-549.
- Miner, J. B. (1965). *Studies in management education*. New York: Springer.
- Miner, J. B. (1978). Twenty years of research on role-motivation theory of managerial effectiveness. *Personnel Psychology*, 31(4), 739-760.
- Mintzberg, H. (1973). *The nature of managerial work*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Morrison, E. W. (2011). Employee voice behavior: Integration and directions for future research. *Academy of Management Annals*, 5(1), 373-412.
- Mount, M. K., Barrick, M. R., Scullen, S. M., & Rounds, J. (2005). Higher-order dimensions of the big five personality traits and the big six vocational interest types. *Personnel Psychology*, 58(2), 447-478.
- Murnieks, C. Y., Mosakowski, E., & Cardon, M. S. (2014). Pathways of passion identity centrality, passion, and behavior among entrepreneurs. *Journal of Management*, 40(6), 1583-1606.
- Murphy, W. H., & Li, N. (2012). A multi-nation study of sales manager effectiveness with global implications. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 41(7), 1152-1163.
- Mussweiler, T., Gabriel, S., & Bodenhausen, G. V. (2000). Shifting social identities as a strategy for deflecting threatening social comparisons. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 79(3), 398.
- Neelankavil, J. P., Mathur, A., & Zhang, Y. (2000). Determinants of managerial performance: A cross-cultural comparison of the perceptions of middle-level managers in four countries. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 31(1), 121-140.
- O'Reilly, C. A., & Chatman, J. (1986). Organizational commitment and psychological attachment: The effects of compliance, identification, and internalization on prosocial behavior. *Journal of applied psychology*, 71(3), 492.
- Owens, B. P., Johnson, M. D., & Mitchell, T. R. (2013). Expressed humility in organizations: Implications for performance, teams, and leadership. *Organization Science*, 24(5), 1517-1538.
- Pearsall, M. J., Ellis, A. P., & Bell, B. S. (2010). Building the infrastructure: the effects of role identification behaviors on team cognition development and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(1), 192.
- Pope, J. P., & Hall, C. (2015). Understanding the Relationship Between Coaches' Basic Psychological Needs and Identity Prominence and Their Commitment, Positive Affect, and Intentions to Persist. *The Sport Psychologist*, 29(2), 134-142.

- Pope, J. P., & Hall, C. R. (2014). Initial development of the Coach Identity Prominence Scale: A role identity model perspective. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 36(3), 258-271.
- Pratt, M. G. (1998). Central questions in organizational identification. In Whetten D. A. & Godfrey, P. C. (Eds), *Identity in Organizations: Building Theory through Conversations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Pratt, M. G., & Foreman, P. O. (2000). Classifying managerial responses to multiple organizational identities. *Academy of Management Review*, 25(1), 18-42.
- Pratt, M. G., Rockmann, K. W., & Kaufmann, J. B. (2006). Constructing professional identity: The role of work and identity learning cycles in the customization of identity among medical residents. *Academy of management journal*, 49(2), 235-262.
- Pratto, F., Sidanius, J., & Levin, S. (2006). Social dominance theory and the dynamics of intergroup relations: Taking stock and looking forward. *European review of social psychology*, 17(1), 271-320.
- Preacher, K. J., Curran, P. J., & Bauer, D. J. (2006). Computational tools for probing interactions in multiple linear regression, multilevel modeling, and latent curve analysis. *Journal of educational and behavioral statistics*, 31(4), 437-448.
- Preston, D. S., Chen, D., & Leidner, D. E. (2008). Examining the Antecedents and Consequences of CIO Strategic Decision-Making Authority: An Empirical Study. *Decision Sciences*, 39(4), 605-642.
- Quigley, T. J., & Hambrick, D. C. (2012). When the former CEO stays on as board chair: Effects on successor discretion, strategic change, and performance. *Strategic Management Journal*, 33(7), 834-859.
- Ramarajan, L. (2014). Past, present and future research on multiple identities: Toward an intrapersonal network approach. *Academy of Management Annals*, 8(1), 589-659.
- Roberts, L. M., Dutton, J. E., Spreitzer, G. M., Heaphy, E. D., & Quinn, R. E. (2005). Composing the reflected best-self portrait: Building pathways for becoming extraordinary in work organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 30(4), 712-736.
- Robertson, I. T., Baron, H., Gibbons, P., MacIver, R., & Nyfield, G. (2000). Conscientiousness and managerial performance. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 73(2), 171-180.
- Roccas, S., & Brewer, M. B. (2002). Social identity complexity. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 6(2), 88-106.
- Rosenberg, M. (1979). *Conceiving the Self*. New York: Basic Books.
- Rothbard, N. P., & Ramarajan, L. (2009). Checking your identities at the door? Positive relationships between nonwork and work identities. *Exploring positive identities and organizations: Building a theoretical and research foundation*, 125-148.
- Rus, D., Van Knippenberg, D., & Wisse, B. (2010). Leader power and leader self-serving behavior: The role of effective leadership beliefs and performance information. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 46(6), 922-933.

- Sadri, G., Weber, T. J., & Gentry, W. A. (2011). Empathic emotion and leadership performance: An empirical analysis across 38 countries. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22(5), 818-830.
- Scandura, T. A., Graen, G. B., & Novak, M. A. (1986). When managers decide not to decide autocratically: An investigation of leader-member exchange and decision influence. *Journal of applied psychology*, 71(4), 579.
- Schaumborg, R. L., & Flynn, F. J. (2012). Uneasy lies the head that wears the crown: the link between guilt proneness and leadership. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 103(2), 327.
- Schriesheim, C. A., Neider, L. L., & Scandura, T. A. (1998). Delegation and leader-member exchange: Main effects, moderators, and measurement issues. *Academy of Management Journal*, 41(3), 298-318.
- Schwartz, S. H. (1992). Universals in the content and structure of values: Theoretical advances and empirical tests in 20 countries. *Advances in experimental social psychology*, 25, 1-65.
- Schwartz, S. H., & Bilsky, W. (1987). Toward a universal psychological structure of human values. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 53(3), 550.
- Shamir, B. (1990). Calculations, values, and identities: The sources of collectivistic work motivation. *Human Relations*, 43(4), 313-332.
- Shapira, Z. (1976). A facet analysis of leadership styles. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 61(2), 136.
- Shaw, J. D., Zhu, J., Duffy, M. K., Scott, K. L., Shih, H. A., & Susanto, E. (2011). A contingency model of conflict and team effectiveness. *Journal of applied psychology*, 96(2), 391.
- Shi, W., Markoczy, L., & Dess, G. G. (2009). The role of middle management in the strategy process: Group affiliation, structural holes, and tertius iungens. *Journal of management*, 35(6), 1453-1480.
- Sidanius, J. (1993). The psychology of group conflict and the dynamics of oppression: a social dominance perspective.
- Sidanius, J., & Pratto, F. (1999). *Social dominance: An intergroup theory of social hierarchy and oppression*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Sidanius, J., Pratto, F., Sinclair, S., & Laar, C. (1996). Mother Teresa meets Genghis Khan: The dialectics of hierarchy-enhancing and hierarchy-attenuating career choices. *Social Justice Research*, 9(2), 145-170.
- Sluss, D. M., & Ashforth, B. E. (2007). Relational identity and identification: Defining ourselves through work relationships. *Academy of Management Review*, 32(1), 9-32.
- Sonenshein, S. (2014). How organizations foster the creative use of resources. *Academy of Management Journal*, 57(3), 814-848.
- Sosik, J. J. (2005). The role of personal values in the charismatic leadership of corporate managers: A model and preliminary field study. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16(2), 221-244.

- Sosik, J. J., Jung, D., & Dinger, S. L. (2009). Values in authentic action: Examining the roots and rewards of altruistic leadership. *Group & Organization Management*.
- Spreitzer, G. M. (1995). Psychological empowerment in the workplace: Dimensions, measurement, and validation. *Academy of management Journal*, 38(5), 1442-1465.
- Steffens, N. K., Schuh, S. C., Haslam, S. A., Perez, A., & Dick, R. (2015). 'Of the group' and 'for the group': How followership is shaped by leaders' prototypicality and group identification. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 45(2), 180-190.
- Stets, J. E. (2005). Examining emotions in identity theory. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 68(1), 39-56.
- Stets, J. E., & Burke, P. J. (2000). Identity theory and social identity theory. *Social psychology quarterly*, 224-237.
- Stryker, S. (1968). Identity salience and role performance: The relevance of symbolic interaction theory for family research. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 558-564.
- Stryker, S. (1980). *Symbolic interactionism: A social structural version*. Benjamin-Cummings Publishing Company.
- Stryker, S., & Burke, P. J. (2000). The past, present, and future of an identity theory. *Social psychology quarterly*, 284-297.
- Stryker, S., & Serpe, R. T. (1982). Commitment, identity salience, and role behavior: Theory and research example. In *Personality, roles, and social behavior* (pp. 199-218). Springer New York.
- Stryker, S., & Serpe, R. T. (1994). Identity salience and psychological centrality: Equivalent, overlapping, or complementary concepts? *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 16-35.
- Sveningsson, S., & Alvesson, M. (2003). Managing managerial identities: Organizational fragmentation, discourse and identity struggle. *Human relations*, 56(10), 1163-1193.
- Swann, W. B., & Hill, C. A. (1982). When our identities are mistaken: Reaffirming self-conceptions through social interaction. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 43(1), 59.
- Tajfel, H. (1982). Social psychology of intergroup relations. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 33(1), 1-39.
- Thoits, P. A. (1991). On merging identity theory and stress research. *Social psychology quarterly*, 101-112.
- Thoits, P. A. (1995). Identity-relevant events and psychological symptoms: A cautionary tale. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 72-82.
- Thoits, P. A. (2012). Role-identity salience, purpose and meaning in life, and well-being among volunteers. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 75(4), 360-384.
- Thoits, P. A. (2013). Volunteer identity salience, role enactment, and well-being: Comparisons of three salience constructs. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 76(4), 373-398.

- Thomason, S. J., Weeks, M., Bernardin, H. J., & Kane, J. (2011). The differential focus of supervisors and peers in evaluations of managerial potential. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 19(1), 82-97.
- Tost, L. P. (2015). When, why, and how do powerholders “feel the power”? Examining the links between structural and psychological power and reviving the connection between power and responsibility. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 35, 29-56.
- Tropp, L. R., & Wright, S. C. (1999). Ingroup identification and relative deprivation: An examination across multiple social comparisons. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 29(5-6), 707-724.
- Tsui, A. S. (1984). A role set analysis of managerial reputation. *Organizational behavior and human performance*, 34(1), 64-96.
- Tsui, A. S., & Ohlott, P. (1988). Multiple assessment of managerial effectiveness: Interrater agreement and consensus in effectiveness models. *Personnel Psychology*, 41(4), 779-803.
- Valcour, P. M. (2002). Managerial behavior in a multiplex role system. *Human Relations*, 55(10), 1163-1188.
- Van Dyne, L., & Pierce, J. L. (2004). Psychological ownership and feelings of possession: Three field studies predicting employee attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of organizational behavior*, 25(4), 439-459.
- Viswesvaran, C., Ones, D. S., & Hough, L. M. (2001). Do impression management scales in personality inventories predict managerial job performance ratings?. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 9(4), 277-289.
- Vough, H. C., Bataille, C. D., Noh, S. C., & Lee, M. D. (2015). Going off script: How managers make sense of the ending of their careers. *Journal of Management Studies*, 52(3), 414-440.
- Wangrow, D. B., Schepker, D. J., & Barker, V. L. (2014, January). When Does CEO Succession Lead to Strategic Change? The Mediating Role of Top Management Team Change. In *Academy of Management Proceedings* (Vol. 2014, No. 1, p. 15250). Academy of Management.
- Warhurst, R. (2011). Managers’ practice and managers’ learning as identity formation: Reassessing the MBA contribution. *Management Learning*, 42(3), 261-278.
- Watson, T. J. (2001). The emergent manager and processes of management pre-learning. *Management Learning*, 32(2), 221-235.
- Watson, T. J. (2007). Identity work, managing and researching. *Exploring Identity: Concepts and Methods*, Palgrave, Basingstoke.
- Watson, T. J. (2008). Managing identity: Identity work, personal predicaments and structural circumstances. *Organization*, 15(1), 121-143.
- Watson, T. J. (2009). Entrepreneurial action, identity work and the use of multiple discursive resources: The case of a rapidly changing family business. *International Small Business Journal*, 27(3), 251-274.
- Webb, J. (2006) *Organizations, Identities and the Self*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

- Weick, K. E. (1995). *Sensemaking in organizations*. Sage.
- Welbourne, T. M., & Paterson, T. A. (2017). Advancing a richer view of identity at work: The role-based identity scale. *Personnel Psychology*, In press.
- White Jr, R. D. (2010). The micromanagement disease: Symptoms, diagnosis, and cure. *Public Personnel Management*, 39(1), 71-76.
- Wiesenfeld, B. M., & Hewlin, P. F. (2003). Splintered identity and organizational change: The predicament of boundary spanning managers. In *Identity Issues in Groups* (pp. 27-52). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Wilhelm, H., & Bort, S. (2013). How managers talk about their consumption of popular management concepts: identity, rules and situations. *British Journal of Management*, 24(3), 428-444.
- Wright, R. F. (2000). Strategies for avoiding the micromanagement trap. *Management Decision*, 38(5), 362-364.
- Wrzesniewski, A., & Dutton, J. E. (2001). Crafting a job: Revisioning employees as active crafters of their work. *Academy of management review*, 26(2), 179-201.
- Yan, Y., Chong, C. Y., & Mak, S. (2010). An exploration of managerial discretion and its impact on firm performance: Task autonomy, contractual control, and compensation. *International Business Review*, 19(6), 521-530.
- Yitshaki, R., & Kropp, F. (2016). Entrepreneurial passions and identities in different contexts: a comparison between high-tech and social entrepreneurs. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, 28(3-4), 206-233.
- Zhang, Y., Waldman, D. A., Han, Y. L., & Li, X. B. (2015). Paradoxical leader behaviors in people management: Antecedents and consequences. *Academy of Management Journal*, 58(2), 538-566.
- Zhao, G., Chen, Y., Oh, S. H. D., & Ryu, S. L. (2016). The Effects of Congruence in Member and Leader Organizational Identification on Work Outcomes. *Academy of Management Proceedings* (Vol. 2016, No. 1, p. 11117).